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AN INVESTIGATION INTO SOME MORAL CONCEPTS AND MORAL JUDGMENTS
OF GRADE FIVE CHILDREN

by



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A THESIS

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend
to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled
"An Investigation into Some Moral Concepts and Moral Judgments of
Grade Five Children" submitted by Marianita Power, C.N.D. in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated moral concepts and moral judgments of grade five children in an attempt to identify patterns of responses according to sex and intelligence.

The sample consisted of 169 grade five students from three Separate Schools in the City of Edmonton, Canada.

The following four devices were used: (1) the 'Ideal Person' test; (2) the 'Moral Wickedness' test; (3) the 'Moral Incidents' test; and (4) a Student Rating Scale.

Patterns resulting from the qualitative analysis indicated that grade five girls on the average chose a higher percentage of immediately known characters as their ideal person and this trend was the same for all three intellectual groups. Grade five boys chose a higher percentage of remotely known characters as their ideal person. This trend remained the same for all three intellectual groups of boys. The choice of members of the peer group, as ideal persons, received the highest proportion of the total percentage of the total group. Boys and girls chose mainly persons of their own sex as their ideal. Boys chose a greater percentage of ideal persons famous in politics, adventures and war; or, persons associated with movies, T.V. or sports. The girls on the whole chose a greater proportion of persons within the immediate family or community circle, peers or religious figures.

On the average the girls chose their ideal person because they were; intelligent, kind, or good to them. The boys chose their ideal persons mainly because they had; fine or strong physical attributes,

talents, or wealth; or, were of service to others, adventurous, brave, inventive or religious.

The average number of responses offered as reasons for choosing an ideal person by the boys was 1.5 and for the girls was 2.0. Children of high, average and low intelligence offered 1.7, 1.8 and 1.3 average responses respectively per person.

The most frequently mentioned wicked deeds were murder, stealing and physical cruelty. It was interesting to note that contemporary social problems having to do with suicide, drugs, war, family problems and prejudice were highlighted equally by boys and girls at the three intellectual levels.

Patterns found in the data of the 'Moral Incidents' test demonstrated that in straightforward issues the children of all three ability groups chose to handle the situations with honesty and truthfulness. The children's intellectual capacity seemed to have some influence on the moral understanding of the children. The greater the complexity of the situation the less the slower children were able to cope with the situation. All three ability groups seemed to depend equally on adult advice.

A summary of the Student Rating Scale suggested that all students tended to rate themselves favorably. Only two noted differences were detected between the sexes in the patterns presented: (1) boys of low intelligence felt that children of their age were neither quarrelsome nor peaceful while the girls of low intelligence felt that children of

their age were quite peaceful, (2) boys of low intelligence felt that children of their age were neither rebellious nor submissive while the girls of low intelligence felt that children of their age were quite submissive.

A summary of the statistical analysis resulting from the application of the Chi square test of significance to the data found the following differences significant at the .05 level:

- (a) between boys and girls when choosing an ideal person
- (b) between ability groups when choosing an ideal person
- (c) between boys and girls when giving reasons for choosing an ideal person
- (d) between boys and girls when naming wicked deeds
- (e) between boys and girls when responding to Moral Incident 8 dealing with honesty; and, Moral Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility
- (f) between ability groups when responding to Moral Incident 8 dealing with honesty; Moral Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility and Moral Incident 1 dealing with punishments.

On the basis of this study, it would seem that effective teaching in the area of moral concepts and moral judgments would involve a knowledge of the patterns of responses characteristic of the group being taught as well as an insight into the specific thinking about and judging of moral matters by the individuals within the group. This study indicated how this knowledge could be obtained at least in part.

Further investigations which might help identify more precisely the factors within the environment relating to development of moral concepts and moral judgments of children were suggested.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

I. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate the moral concepts and moral judgments of grade five children in an attempt to identify patterns of responses according to sex and intelligence. For example, what patterns characterize the responses of boys as a group as compared with girls as a group in regard to: (1) their choice of an ideal person, (2) their reasons for choosing an ideal person, (3) their selection of morally wicked deeds, (4) their ability to respond to hypothetical moral situations, (5) their evaluation of their age group in regard to moral traits? Further, what patterns characterize the responses of children of high, average and low intellectual ability as addressed to the above areas of investigation?

II. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

Our children are our greatest natural resource. Quay tells us that to the degree that they fail to contribute to the general welfare - or, even worse, that they become wasteful or destructive, they are damaged and our society is weakened. Delinquency involves personal suffering as well as a loss to society. A rise in juvenile delinquency according to Quay is a cause for serious concern for the future of the nation. (Quay, 1965, p. 1)

In the same work, Juvenile Delinquency, Quay tells us that there is evidence that juvenile delinquency is increasing both in terms of the rate of absolute number of offences committed, and in terms of the rate of delinquent behavior. This statement was based on research by two United States federal agencies; (1) The Federal Bureau of Investigation of United States Department of Justice and (2) The Children's Bureau of United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. (Quay, 1965)

Mowrer (1961) tells us that delinquency is moral deficiency. He takes the position that weak conscience is due to improper teaching. This point of view rests heavily on learning theory and religious conviction yet does have something in common with the definition put forth by Quay (1965) when he states that delinquency is superego deficiency. The latter position is more a psycho-analytic model of behavior and is perhaps the most frequently used explanation for occurrences of delinquency as put forth by clinical psychologists and psychiatrists. According to Quay (1965) the contention of psychologists and psychiatrists is that the individual fails to incorporate primitive taboos, fails to identify with parents' values, and seeks pleasure at the sacrifice of principles of reality and morality.

Compared with the amount of research in the area of children's intellectual growth, there is a dearth of research in this country regarding the area of moral development of the child, especially at the elementary school level.

Mumford (1946, p. 134) in his work Values for Survival tells us that our civilization faces conditions for which neither "rigid patterns of the earlier past, nor the hopeful fluidity and optimistic expectancy of the recent past provide a sufficient educational orientation". In that same work Mumford (1946, 184-185) also states that if we are to create balanced human beings, "capable of entering into world wide cooperation with all the other men of good will", and according to Mumford that is the supreme task of our generation and the foundation of all its other potential achievements; we must give as much weight to the stimulation of the emotions and to the expression of moral and esthetic values as we now give to science, to invention and to practical organization.

In order to meet this challenge Eve Lewis, (1966, p. 19) a British psychotherapist, tells us that it is of the deepest importance that those of us who have the care of children during their developing years should have an insight into the child's ways of relating to outer reality; into the child's capacity to reason at different levels; into the values, interests and natural religious impulses which prevail in what we may call his inner world.

In the conclusion of the Pringle and Edward (1964) study, regarding an investigation into some moral concepts and judgments of junior school children, the investigators stated that in order for us to do more in the domain of moral growth we need to know more. "Though the field is difficult and complex, we neglect its systematic study at

a high cost in terms of waste ability, maladjustment and delinquency."
(Pringle and Edwards, 1964, p. 214)

Thus, if our schools are to be the socializing agencies they are meant to be it is important that investigators give as much time and effort to the study of children's moral understanding and concepts as is now given to intellectual and scientific investigation.

This study, directed as it was to the identification of possible patterns of responses relating to moral concepts and judgments, sought (1) to explore the moral thinking of grade five children in order to gain a better insight into how Canadian children respond to hypothetical situations demanding decisions within their range of experience; (2) sought to find out how grade five children evaluated themselves and others their own age in regard to moral traits; (3) sought to gather data that could lead into further research regarding the singling out of environmental factors which seem to influence and have meaning for grade five children.

The instruments used in this study sought to provide helpful criteria that might be used for developing better teaching methods in the area of moral development. This information is necessary in order that educators may be able to help today's children grow into men of vision and of the insight necessary to grapple with the decisions capable of building a true and meaningful "terres des hommes".

III. MODEL OF THE STUDY

The present study is modelled upon a study carried out by M.L. Pringle and J.B. Edwards under the title of "Some Moral Concepts and Judgments of Junior School Children". The 226 children who took part in the study comprised the entire fourth year in two junior schools in the Midlands; there were 109 boys and 117 girls. Both schools were situated in areas populated by skilled working class families, many of whom lived in their own homes. These two men set out to explore whether there were differences in moral concepts and judgments at various levels of intelligence, the sample was divided into three groups. (The mean age of the group was 11 years and the I.Q. range was from 74-168 according to the Terman-Merrill Intelligence Scale (1937) Form L.) The mean I.Q.'s of the three groups were 131.2, 108.1 and 86.5 respectively representing the high, average and low ability groups. The instruments used were the "Ideal Person" test, the "Moral Wickedness" test and the "Moral Incidents" test. Details of these tests will be given in Chapter III.

IV. LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

This study will be limited to the Middle Socio-Economic group in an effort to keep the sample as close to the Pringle-Edwards study as possible. The sample from the latter study was described as coming from "areas populated mostly by skilled working class families, many of whom live in owner occupied houses". (Pringle & Edwards, 1964, p. 9)

For the same reason only children of approximately eleven years of age were selected for the study.

In the Pringle-Edwards study the Terman-Merrill Intelligence Scale (1937) Form L was administered to obtain the I.Q. scores while in the present study the Otis Alpha Intelligence Scale was used.

V. ASSUMPTIONS OF THIS STUDY

It is assumed that the Moral Incident's Test adopted from Pringle and Edwards study (1964) provides an adequate instrument for determining how grade five children respond to hypothetical situations.

A second assumption is that the Student Rating Scale provides a reliable evaluation of the moral traits of grade five children by members of the same age group.

VI. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Moral Concept is an idea or mental pattern that may be used as a criterion for discriminating between right and wrong. (Good, 1959)

Moral Judgment involves choice among principles, policies, or courses of action and includes some criterion for right action. (Good, 1959)

Conscience is the more or less integrated functioning of a person's system of moral values. (English & English, 1958)

Internalization involves incorporating something within the mind or body; adopting as one's own ideas, practices, standards or values of another person or of society. (English & English, 1958)

Separate Schools refer to those schools of Roman Catholic origin.

Ability groups - a term used interchangeably with intellectual groups throughout this research.

VII. QUESTIONS ADDRESSED TO THE STUDY

The following questions were addressed to the study with the aim of guiding the analysis and interpretation of data.

1. What types of persons are considered to be ideal by grade five students? - and why?
2. What deeds do children of grade five consider to be most wicked?
3. How do children respond to hypothetical situations demanding decisions and judgments well within the experience field of grade five children?
4. How do children judge the moral traits of their own age group?

VIII. STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study.

1. There is no significant difference between boys and girls when choosing an ideal person.
2. There is no significant difference between ability groups when choosing an ideal person.
3. There is no significant difference between boys and girls when giving reasons for choosing an ideal person.
4. There is no significant difference between ability groups when giving reasons for choosing an ideal person.

5. There is no significant difference between boys and girls when naming wicked deeds.

6. There is no significant difference between ability groups when naming wicked deeds.

7. There is no significant difference between boys and girls when responding to:

- a) Incident number 4 dealing with honesty
- b) Incident number 6 dealing with honesty
- c) Incident number 7 dealing with honesty
- d) Incident number 8 dealing with honesty
- e) Incident number 3 dealing with responsibility and loyalty
- f) Incident number 10 dealing with responsibility and loyalty
- g) Incident number 2 dealing with responsibility and loyalty
- h) Incident number 1 dealing with punishments
- i) Incident number 5 dealing with punishments
- j) Incident number 9 dealing with punishments

of the Moral Incidents Tests.

8. There is no significant difference between ability groups when responding to:

- a) Incident number 4 dealing with honesty
- b) Incident number 6 dealing with honesty
- c) Incident number 7 dealing with honesty
- d) Incident number 8 dealing with honesty
- e) Incident number 3 dealing with responsibility and loyalty
- f) Incident number 10 dealing with responsibility and loyalty
- g) Incident number 2 dealing with responsibility and loyalty
- h) Incident number 1 dealing with punishments
- i) Incident number 5 dealing with punishments
- j) Incident number 9 dealing with punishments

of the Moral Incidents Tests.

IX. OVERALL PLAN OF THE STUDY

In order that the study be addressed to its purpose, the remainder of the investigation will be presented in Chapters II, III, IV, V and VI.

Chapter I presented the purpose and significance of the present work, a statement of questions, and hypotheses directed to the study, limitations, assumptions and definition of terms.

Chapters II and III will deal with research related to the domain of moral judgments. Chapter IV will highlight the design and procedure of the study. At this point the method of sampling, the instrumentation and procedure followed in administering the tests will be discussed. Chapter V will expose an analyses of the data and a summary in the form of tabulated percentage tables. The chi square test will be applied to the data in order to compare the observed frequencies with the theoretical frequencies that might be expected in order to ascertain whether the differences found are significant. The final chapter will show a summary of the findings, implications, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The problem or question of moral judgments of children has received attention from some of the most notable psychologists, namely Freud, Piaget, Peck and Havighurst. The literature examined in connection with this investigation is divided into two chapters. Chapter II will cite the work of the above named psychologists with emphasis on Freud, Piaget, Peck and Havighurst in order to give a background of knowledge regarding the growth of moral judgment.

Chapter III will present studies which hold that moral judgments are learned, followed by earlier and then more recent studies aimed at studying age, sex, intelligence, socio-economic and cultural factors in regard to the development of moral judgments. Before a summary of the forementioned studies is drawn together several studies that employed the tests used in the present study will be presented followed by a brief study of Russian work in the area of moral development in children.

I. THE WORK OF FREUD

Before the time of Freud it was difficult to follow the admonition of the old Delphic oracle, "Know thyself". This primary injunction is now possible at least in greater part than before this giant emerged on the psychological scene.

The evolution of the moral sense follows closely the development of the normal person according to Freudian psychology. For the first year and one half the child looks upon the world as part of himself and existing for no other end than for his pleasure. The child is literally self-centered and so the "id" is master and the only criterion of judgment for the tiny child is, does it please me? Reality is non-existent outside of the child.

Gradually however the dominance of the id gives way as the child begins to differentiate himself from his environment. At this point if he wishes to have his desires satisfied he is forced to come to terms with a reality outside himself. His one dread seems to be the loss of parent love and protection. To waylay such a disaster the child will renounce any self-satisfaction which does not coincide with their wishes. At this point then the child simply exchanges the satisfaction of one need for another. Hence as yet there is no internal sanction of his acts and apparently no guilt feelings.

Freud tells us that at approximately the age of three years authority is internalized with the formation of the super-ego. Now the child sees the father as a competitor for the mother's love and somehow knows that he cannot compete. Instead he identifies with the father and so receives the mother's love indirectly. During this process the child establishes the beginnings of his super-ego which sets itself over a portion of the ego.

After a period of what Freud calls latency the child steps into an extended period of socialization which in turn leads to the point where the conscious intellect has primacy over the unconscious id and super-ego and the final goal of moral growth is achieved. At this stage Freud states that man is aware of his needs and constraints and has the ability to make free choices. (Freud, 1962, 1923)

II. THE WORK OF PIAGET

Piaget delineates three levels of moral development which he arrived at from an inductive analysis of the development of moral judgment of the child.

In the first stage the child is totally ego-centric. During this stage the world which he confuses with himself exists only to satisfy his interests and desires. The child feels and understands everything through the medium of his universe, himself. Hence the very young child can best be described as "amoral".

Gradually however the child learns to differentiate himself from his environment as he comes in contact with the judgments of others. He acts in conformity to rules external to himself. He seems to believe in an absolute value of the commands he receives. The attention or respect given at this stage is directed not to the command but to the person giving the command. The child doesn't seem to know why he does what he does he just simply knows he must. Piaget attributes this conduct to the presence of unilateral respect in regard

to authority and adult constraint. During this time the child seems to emphasize the rightness and necessity of strict punishment and the importance of submitting to parental dictates.

Later, the child becomes more concerned with equality among his peers and with types of punishment that fit the crime. As his judgments become more flexible his concern for unilateral respect is replaced by mutual respect and constraint is succeeded by cooperation. In other words autonomy follows heteronomy. To this stage of cooperation the child through mutual reciprocity which is the outcome of a discussion between equals compares his own motives and activities with others including adults and begins now to reflect on them and judge them objectively. Now all semblances of the primacy of his own personal convictions and blind faith in adult authority disappears as the idea of justice and mutual service takes over. From this point the good is something that is appealing in itself and not merely obligatory. The third stage then is the only truly moral level. To the question, "How does the child ever attain the autonomy proper?" Piaget stated that the first signs of autonomy appears when the child discovers that truthfulness is necessary to the relations of sympathy and mutual respect. Reciprocity then seems to be the determining factor. For moral autonomy appears when the mind regards as necessary an ideal that is independent of all external pressure. Apart from our relations with others Piaget says that there can be no moral necessity because

the individual knows only anomy and not autonomy. On the other hand any relation with other persons in which unilateral respect takes place leads to heteronomy. Autonomy appears therefore only with reciprocity when mutual respect is strong enough to make the individual feel from within the desire to treat others as he himself would wish to be treated. (Piaget, 1932)

III. THE WORK OF PECK AND HAVIGHURST

Sometime after the work of Piaget, Robert Peck and Robert Havighurst carried out a similar study with a group of American children. Their aim was to analyze moral character and their findings led to the establishing of five levels of character development. Each type representing a successive stage in the psychosocial development of the person.

The first type represents the inability to adapt to the moral demands of society. The "amoral" person has no internalized principles, no control and therefore no conscience. The good is what satisfies self. Since he sees himself as the center of the universe it follows that he follows his own impulses indiscriminately using others as means to his own gratification. Since like the psychopath the amoral person has not accepted the basic tenet of society that one must consider other people, he is like an infant in his lack of effectual moral principles.

The last four stages represent four reasons why a person may act according to the moral requirements of his world.

The second type the "expedient" person comes to terms with society in his own way. It is a selfish stage wherein a person may consider others only to gain his own ends and behaves morally if it suits his aims. He may appear moral and responsible but has few positive moral directives within him. This type of person may obey to avoid punishment or disapproval.

The third type, the "conforming" type, accepts the norms of his parents and society in a passive, uncritical manner. His only fear is disapproval and so he tries to conform to all the rules of his world. He possesses no generalized principles and his super-ego is composed of only negative commands which he internalizes without question. Since the conformist has a weak power of self-direction he takes life for granted and easily bows to the directives of those around him.

The "irrational-conscientious" type also lives by absolute rules but these are not in conformity to a group code but rather to an internalized code which he believes in. Therefore if he thinks an act is right he will carry it out no matter what others think. The term irrational applies to the fact that this type of person will be rigid in applying a preconceived principle regardless of the circumstances surrounding the situation. Therefore he will often act to the detriment of others while adhering to the letter of the law.

The highest level of character or moral development is found in the "rational-altruistic" type. He has a positive internalized

code by which the judges and guides his own actions. He objectively assesses each action against the criterion that it serves others as well as himself. The name rational-altruistic was given to this type because he reasons or weighs his acts while always considering their effects on others. The only disapproval he fears is personal disappointment in not living up to his best self. (Peck and Havighurst, 1960).

SUMMARY

A summary of the above presentations indicate that although these men had differing methods and purposes their findings regarding prime determining factors and "significant perceptions" have much in common. To Freud, Piaget, Peck and Havighurst the first stage depicts the self as the center of the child's universe. Others are tools for self gratification while the good is what pleases them and the law - one's own desires. There are no internalized principles, no sense of obligation and no conscience. For Peck and Havighurst their second type is also marked as having these same significant perceptions. The determining factor seems to be the person's instinct.

The super-ego, the morality of duty and the conforming type according to Freud, Piaget, Peck and Havighurst respectively comprise the second stage of the growth of moral development. During this stage the self is conceived only in relation to a closed group. Others are set up as the norm for one's own actions. The good is social conformity

and the law is the extrinsic will of authority. At this stage internalized principles simply say do what others do. There is no sense of obligation and, conscience as such, is a kind of irrational critic with a must mentality. External prohibitions seem to be the overall determining factor at this stage.

Peck and Havighurst have another type of moral person that fits between the second and third stage according to Freud and Piaget. This type of person, the irrational-conscientious type has no true concept of self and is independent of others. The good is conformity to an inner code and the law is the will of authority. Their internalized principles are very rigid; their sense of obligation is strong but irrational while they must follow their conscience.

The third stage according to Freud, Piaget, and the fifth stage according to Peck and Havighurst has reason as its determining factor and is in actuality a description of a truly moral person. Once a person has developed a healthy ego or has reached the morality of goodness or is the rational-altruistic type then they have a strong self concept. Others are related to as other selves. The good is what serves others as well as self and the law is one's own integrity. Their internalized principles are derived from experience; their sense of obligation is strong, rational and independent while their conscience is an objective assessment of every action. (Del Sesto, 1967)

CHAPTER III

RELATED RESEARCH

Children are born into a society and culture where norms and values are established but the process by which children interiorize them, which was presented as background to this study in Chapter II, is one about which there are many questions. Chapter III will present studies related to the development of moral judgment in children. The presentation will follow a chronological sequence and will culminate in a summary of findings in regard to age, sex, intelligence, and socio-economic status. Several studies will highlight work done in the area of moral judgments 'as learned'. A summary of some of the work of several Russians regarding moral attitudes and judgments of children of different ages will conclude this section.

Barnes (1894) worked with American children ranging in age from 7 to 16. In this study Barnes analyzed 2,000 responses to questions asking the children to describe just and unjust punishments they had received. The results showed that punishments were usually considered just because they came from adults; that children believed that offences could be paid for by physical suffering; and, that these views decreased with age.

Schallenberger (1894) worked with 3,000 American children. She analyzed their written responses in order to find out how they saw or viewed their own rights. Schallenberger found that younger children favored severe punishments while with older children punishments declined

in favor of explanations given to the wrongdoers. It was also found that restitutive punishments were present at all ages but increased with age.

Barnes (1902) study replicated in great part the 1894 study by Schallenberger. At this time however Barnes worked with a population of 1,047 English school children from the lower-middle socio-economic areas. The age range was 8 to 14 years and the task, like the Schallenberger study consisted of written responses of how children saw their own rights. Barnes found as did Schallenberger that younger children favored severe punishments and older children felt that explanations were sufficient.

Macaulay and Watkins (1925) carried out an investigation to ascertain the effects of environment and other influences upon the development of moral values. They also sought to find out what changes take place with increasing age. They worked with approximately 3,000 children ranging in age from 7 to 18 years from a variety of socio-economic areas. The first section of their work dealt with the children's concept of moral wickedness. Their findings indicated broad areas of development as shown in the moral attitude of the child. Up to approximately nine years of age minor offenses against the child were mentioned; from nine to adolescence, the 'conventional morality of his world is the keynote of the child's attitude'; signs of rebellion against authority began to appear at adolescence and at nineteen the person apparently had come into full control of himself.

The second part of their inquiry dealing with the ideal persons as named by the students in their study revealed that with increasing age the type of character chosen changed. The main reasons given for their choices revealed that for the most part children up to thirteen ignore ethical ideals and the moral aspects of character. The main reasons given for the choice of the ideal person by children up to fourteen was the desire for power while over fourteen mentioned the desire for wealth and adventure most often.

Hartshorne and May (1928-30) conducted an extensive Character Education Inquiry. They used one hundred tests in order to find measures of moral conduct. Children were placed in natural and contrived situations. Many of the methods used in the study were criticized and the overall results indicated without a doubt the difficulties involved in working in this domain of child development. Mention of their work is noted in this review only to point out that for several years very little further research was carried out in this area. This was probably due to the difficulties exposed by Hartshorne and May.

Piaget (1932) began an investigation of the moral judgment of children under 12 years of age. He worked with few children in an area of Geneva. From his vantage point Piaget believed that the morality of the child changed as he grew older. From adhering to strict moral rules derived from parental constraint, the child grew to more general principles held by groups of his peers. The young child seems to emphasize the rightness and necessity of strict punishment and the importance of

obeying without questioning simply on the word of the adult. Later when he becomes more concerned with equality among equals he leans more to the types of punishments that more or less 'fit the crime'. For Piaget, this change takes place as the child slowly develops a sense of solidarity and sympathy with others.

Following Piaget's painstaking work on the moral judgments of children other researchers seemed to be encouraged to delve into this area. His classic work led to a series of studies.

Harrower (1934) replicated some of the work of Piaget in order to discover whether his results would be identical, similar or dissimilar to those obtained with children of a different nationality; and secondly, by using two different social groups, to discover whether Piaget had minimized the environmental factor. Harrower concluded that since among the control group the results were both qualitatively and quantitatively different from Piaget's Geneva findings that either the stages as set out by Piaget did not hold universally or that these stages could be accelerated within certain environmental circumstances.

Lerner (1937) worked with children ranging in age from 6 to 12 of different socio-economic backgrounds. The investigation was addressed to studying the relationship between social status, parental authority and moral judgments. Lerner found that children in the high socio-economic group were less liable to see moral principles as products of adult constraint. These same children tended to take extenuating circumstances and motives for acting into consideration more often than did

their peers of a lower socio-economic background. Lerner concluded that Piaget should have studied the influence of parental authority in some detail before generalizing his stages of moral development.

Chaswell (1935) conducted an exhaustive investigation into the relationship between morality and the intellect. Her findings gave evidence that morality and intelligence were positively correlated.

Swainson (1939) studied the development of moral ideas from young children to adolescence. Swainson used mainly incidents similar to those used by Piaget. With the younger children she invited them to comment upon the stories while for children between 11 and 14 she used a written questionnaire. Swainson concluded from her study that the development of moral ideas depended on the 'progressive integration of the personality in relation to an ever widening environment'.

Gesell (1940, 46, 56), among his various studies, made a study of the development of the ethical sense which he and his fellow workers believed began in the first five years of life with growth and expansion taking place later. They felt that this growth and improvement was related to an increase in intelligence and personal relationships. To them the intellect played the most important part in grasping moral values along with the influence of experience and environment.

MacRae (1950) studied 244 boys ranging in age from 5 to 14. For his study MacRae used a questionnaire containing moral judgment questions regarding the child's social relations. He concluded that there was a decrease in immanent justice belief with age but this trend was

not consistent. He felt that Piaget had stressed cognitive moral development while neglecting emotional moral development. From his work MacRae believed the children from the higher socio-economic advanced in cognitive moral development while children from the lower socio-economic bracket advanced more quickly in emotional moral development.

Jahoda (1958) worked with 120 primary and middle-school children in Accra, Ghana to investigate whether the existence of a belief in immanent justice would fall off quickly in a more primitive society. His findings showed there was no sex difference in regard to the answers given and that there was a decrease with age in the belief in immanent justice.

Havighurst and Neugarten (1955) studied moral and emotional development of American Indian children. There were 902 children ranging in age from 6 to 18. The findings indicated an increase or no change rather than a decrease with age in belief in immanent justice.

Durkin (1959, 1960) investigated several areas with respect to the development of moral judgment regarding the concept of justice. She concluded that the acceptance of reciprocity as a justice principle decreased as the chronological age increased. The findings did not seem to be related to the intelligence level of the children. When studying the children's concept of justice regarding one's person she found that older children tended to show concern for possible

mitigating factors in the situation being judged. Through her work Durkin also found that children tended to seek justice in an authority figure. In the 1960 study Durkin found there was no difference between the responses given by boys and girls to questions regarding justice.

Boehm and Martin (1962) studied the influence of social class on children's responses to stories involving moral judgments. They worked with 102 children ranging from 6 to 12 years of age, from two different socio-economic levels. Only children of American white parents and those who had older siblings were part of the study. Fifty-eight of the children were intellectually superior. The investigators presented four stories that were designed to measure the effect of social class on conscience development. Their conclusions show that there was no difference between classes; there was no sex superiority but there were developmental trends above and below the nine year of age level.

Kolberg (1963) worked with 100 American boys ranging in age from 7 to 17. Some were from the middle socio-economic class some from the lower socio-economic class and some were officially delinquents. Kolberg concluded from his findings that there were six developmental stages in the growth of moral judgments. The first two stages were similar to Piaget's heteronomous and autonomous stages respectively but he felt that the last stage was when the child judged conduct in terms of his own internal standards, in comparative independence of his immediate social environment. He maintained that the chief motivating factor for behavior is not social but rather to satisfy one's own conscience to avoid self-condemnation.

Bray (1962) conducted a study with 2,415 children in England. The students were asked to write a composition on an admired person. As the test was administered by the classroom teachers and was considered as part of the 'eleven-plus' examinations it is probable that the children's choice was influenced more by circumstances of the test than by the children's own feelings and interests. The main findings indicated that 'remote' choices predominated over 'local' ones; that boys mainly chose persons of their own sex, whereas for girls 'local' choices predominated while only half their choices were for their own sex. Recognition and success were highest for the predominant reasons for choice. Giving and receiving of help and affection was mentioned more frequently by girls. The boys tended to choose characters associated with war, politics, sports and explorations while the girls tended more toward humanitarian and religious figures.

Edwards and Pringle (1963) conducted an investigation into some moral concepts and judgments of junior school children. The investigators worked with a sample of 226 children and use three of the devices used in this present study. The results were analysed in relation to sex and intelligence. The results of the 'Ideal Person' test reveal that most of the children chose persons unknown to them. Both sexes tended to choose male characters. The girls tended to choose persons because of their moral or religious qualities while the boys tended to choose persons associated with war, politics, adventure and sport. The less able children tended to name persons from their immediate environment

and gave fewer reasons for their choices.

The results of the 'moral wickedness' test revealed that the most frequently mentioned wicked actions were murder, physical cruelty, stealing and cruelty to animals. As with the Ideal Person test the most intelligent group offered both a greater number and variety of wicked actions.

The results of the 'Moral Incidents' test suggest that straightforward moral issues were readily understood but that the slower children tended to become confused with the main issue whenever the incident became in any way complex.

Laforce (1967) investigated the moral judgments of Indian and White children and in particular their concepts of immanent and retributive justice. Laforce worked with Albertan children ranging in age from 6 to 12 years. To gather her data she used ten stories used by Piaget (1932) and a rating scale to evaluate the moral traits of the children as judged by themselves and their teachers. The findings showed that the children were rated favorably both by themselves and their teachers. The results in regard to the childrens' belief in immanent justice indicated no significant difference between the ages 6 to 12 years. A stronger belief in immanent justice in 6 year old Indian children was evident while a stronger belief in retributive justice was the trend in the 6 to 7 year old white children. Among Indian children scores in retributive justice were higher at ages 11 to 12 than 6 to 7. No such difference was found with white children. These

findings were compared with Piaget's data and it was found that the results did not support Piaget when he observed that there is a decrease with age in belief in immanent justice and an increase with age in retributive justice.

Eysenck (1960) in an article called "The Contribution of Learning Theory" stated that moral values are learned in the course of a child's development and therefore any theory regarding this area of development must be based on known facts of modern learning theory. He supported his statement by postulating the 'conscience' is a conditioned response built up during childhood and arising from aggressive actions and unconditional stimuli. Edwards and Pringle (1963) stated that Eysenck, by stressing individual differences in the above manner, did not actually contribute anything toward the knowledge of how children become autonomous in handling moral situations. Peters (1960) in exploring the relationship of Piaget's and Frued's theories of moral development stated that there were many more different ways of passing on rules to children other than conditioning. Berkowitz (1964) however supported Eysenck by postulating that learning experiences contribute in great part to the nature of the child's moral judgments. He stressed that this was especially significant when adults who are important to the child are part of these learning experiences, especially when the adult encourages the child to examine the various aspects and subsequent consequences of various moral issues.

Iakobson (1960) in his work "Studying the Moral Attitudes and Judgments of Children of Different Ages" tells that in order to build the character of the citizens of the future the teacher should know the attitudes of the children to the life around them; that is, to people, to facts and events; to their parents, relatives and other children; to their teachers, class, and school; to study, to work and to the rules and standards of social behavior. He went on to stress that the teachers should also try to know what changes take place with the years in the emotions of the children as the result of changes in their life situation and their relations with people. In penetrating the ethical world of the child he felt that we must look into the child's concept of good and bad behavior; we must ascertain how the child understands such concepts as honesty, justice, etc.; we must somehow try to find out how he evaluates and makes judgments about the actions and conduct of the people around him. Added to these musts Iakobson stresses that it is essential for us to find out what moral motives determine the actions and deeds of the child himself.

Although work in this area has been carried on by such Russian psychologists as Gurkina, Krutetskii, Aliakrinskaia, Maliovanov, Podberezin, and Rubtsova, they have all, according to Iakobson, studied the ethical world of the child from only one angle, the intellectual, thus limiting themselves to ascertaining the moral ideas of the child. The chief method used in gathering their data was through analyzing compositions which the children wrote on assigned topics. Feeling that

the above mentioned studies were one-sided Iakobson set out to study the basic moral attitudes of children and adolescents toward their surrounding. The instruments used to gather the data were; first a series of questions pertaining to the knowledge of the child's tastes and to rules of conduct. The second instrument was one in which the child was placed in an imaginary situation and asked to tell how he would act under such circumstances. One of the essential purposes of the experiment according to Iakobson was to arouse genuine emotion in the individual and to bring out his real moral attitude toward the given situation. This second instrument consisted of 20 real-life situations. The experiment was recorded on tape. From the results of this study Iakobson points out that inasmuch as some types of influence characterized by disrespect and scorn for the adolescent evoke sharply negative reactions, educators should realize that such attitudes on the part of adults can be changed so as not to feed negative feelings to the child toward the people around him. The experimenter also felt that the situations used in the experiment could be used in developing lofty moral qualities.

To examine Soviet methods of character training, according to Bronfenbrenner, is to become acquainted with the thinking and technology of principally, the roughly Russian 'Dr. Spock', Anton Semyonovich Makarenko. This notable Russian is primarily concerned with the moral upbringing of children, and since according to Bronfenbrenner, (1962, p. 550) "Communist authorities view as the primary objective of education

not the learning of subject matter but the development of what they call socialist morality", the work of Makarenko permeates the educational system. Characteristic of Makarenko's thought is the view that the parents' authority over their children is delegated to them by the state and that the duty to one's children is merely a particular instance of one's broader duty toward society. Therefore when need and values of the family conflict with those of the state there is no question as to who gets priority. The distinguishing characteristics of communisitic methods of character training in and through the school are theoretically and practically aimed at forming a "socialist morality".

SUMMARY OF RELATED RESEARCH

It is said that Thorndike (1936, p. 4) gave a contemporary voice to the socratic maxim, "To know the good is to do the good", when he asserted that goodness and intelligence was positively correlated. This assertion made by Thorndike was based on an exhaustive collection of moral and intellectual data gathered by one of Thorndike's students Clare Chaswell (1935). In 1928 Hartshorne and May found a correlation of .50 between scores of intelligence and honesty. To Gesell and his co-workers (1956) growth in the ethical sense was related to an increase in intelligence as well as personal relationships. To this team of workers the intellect plays the most important part in grasping moral values along with the influence of experience and environment. Edwards

and Pringle (1963) found that the more intelligent children gave more and a greater variety of reasons for choosing their Ideal Person. They also offered more and a greater variety of wicked deeds. The intellectually superior were better able to handle extenuating circumstances in assessing hypothetical moral situations. Durkin (1959) found that the level of intelligence was not related to the child's notion of justice.

For the most part the indications of the work of the above researchers seems to point to the fact that intelligence does seem to positively correlate with moral goodness and thus agree with Roger Brown (1965, p. 243) when he said, "the child's sense of justice as well as his notion of naughtiness reflect the developmental level of his intelligence."

According to Garrison et al. (1967, p. 258) boys and girls from early childhood are encouraged to adopt different values. They state that boys are expected to value independence, responsibility, and courage; and they are actively guided toward developing an inner strength for meeting difficulties. A girl, on the other hand, is taught that self-fulfillment lies in her potential role as wife, mother, and home-maker, dependent upon and submissive to the will of men. However, in the study that specifically looked at the differences between the responses of boys and girls; Durkin (1960), Boehm and Martin (1962), Jahoda (1958), no difference was found. In the responses given to the Ideal Person test by Bray (1962) and also by Edwards and Pringle (1963)

boys on the average tended to choose male ideal persons while girls quite often tended to choose persons of the opposite sex as ideal persons. Boys tended to choose characters associated with war, politics, sports, explorations or adventure while girls tended to choose characters noted for their religious or moral qualities.

Barnes (1894, 1902), Schallenger (1894), Piaget (1932), Jahoda (1958) and Durkin (1959) postulate from the research findings that morality changes as the child grows older. While the younger children emphasize rightness and necessity of strict punishments and the importance of obeying without questioning the child grows to the point where he is more concerned with punishments that fit the crime and has more concern for mitigating factors in moral issues. Havinghurst and Neugarten (1955) working with the American Indians found an increase or no change with age in belief in immanent justice. Boehm and Martin (1962) found developmental trends above and below the nine year old level. MacRae (1950) found a decrease in belief in immanent justice with age but also found that this trend was not consistent. Laforce (1967) working with White and Indian children found that her results did not support a decrease with age in belief in immanent justice nor an increase with age in belief in retributive justice. The findings in general seem to point to the possibility that age in itself is not a major factor in moral development but rather simply gives guide-lines to probable levels of development within certain circumstances.

McCandless (1965, p. 5) tells us that the way in which a child grows, mentally and physically, is probably affected as much by the way life treats him, by the opportunities he has to learn, and by the richness and emotional atmosphere of his environment as it is by his sensory-neurological and muscular equipment. The influence of culture and of social status within the culture upon the development of moral judgment has been the subject of many pieces of research. Freud (1936) stated that the content of culture is internalized through identification with parents. Allport (1955) postulates that the insights of moral maturity and growth toward moral maturity become possible as the self image and value systems of the individual develop which he contends is helped by the process of identification and then helped through experiences within the individual. Brown (1965) states that in a changing society, the process of moral development is subject to modification. Changes are caused by internal contradictions, the impact of foreign moralities and the creation of new circumstances. Therefore, according to Brown, this process can only be understood if we take into account variations existing in the field of experience surrounding the child.

Added to the statements made by the above prominent psychologists the following studies have taken into consideration the impact of the social structure on the development of social judgment.

Although Barnes's (1902) study replicated in great part Schallengerger's work of 1894 both arrived at approximately the same results

even though they were working with two different cultural groups.

Schallenger worked with American children while Barnes worked with British children. Both studies found that younger children favored severe punishments while older children tended more toward explanations. Macaulay and Watkins (1925) investigated the effects of environment on moral values. Up to thirteen years of age children ignore ethical or moral aspects of character. Desire for power, wealth and adventure were mentioned most often as reasons for choice of ideal persons. Harrower (1934) concluded that since his control group differed significantly from the group similar to Piaget's sample culturally that either the stages as set out by Piaget did not hold universally or that these stages could be accelerated within certain environmental circumstances. Lerner (1937) found children of high socio-economic status less able to see moral principles as products of adult constraint and unvaryingly rigid and the same children tended to take extenuating circumstances into account. From these findings Lerner felt Piaget should have studied the influence of parental authority in more detail before generalizing his stages. Swainson (1939) concluded that the development of moral ideas depended upon the progressive integration of the personality in relation to an ever widening environment. Liu (1950) studied the influence of cultural background of Chinese and non-Chinese children and found at each level more non-Chinese revealed a belief in immanent justice and thus concluded that a decrease in moral realism is not due to maturity alone. Boehm and Martin (1962) when

trying to measure the effect of social class on conscience development found no differences between classes. Laforce (1967) found differences between Indian and White children at various ages in regard to belief in immanent justice and retributive justice and from her findings one could conclude that culture is a factor to consider in the development of moral judgments in children.

The findings then in great part support the fact that culture and the socio-economic status within a culture plays a very important role in the development of moral judgments of a people. These findings would also make stronger the argument that moral judgments are learned, as held by Eysenck (1960) and Berkowitz (1964). They stress that when the adults who are important to the child are part of the learning experiences then these learning experiences contribute in great part to the nature of the child's moral judgments.

CHAPTER IV

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

In order to answer the questions and test the hypothesis addressed to this study and as stated in Chapter I, data were gathered from a population of grade five students in the City of Edmonton, Canada. The present chapter will describe the sample, instruments and the testing procedure of this study.

I. THE SAMPLE

The sample comprised 169 subjects from the City of Edmonton, Canada and was selected in the following manner. The Edmonton Separate School Board was requested to identify the five largest elementary schools which in its opinion would be classified as of Middle Socio-economic status. Having obtained the five names, a random selection was made using the Table of Random Digits prepared by the Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics of the Interstate Commerce Commission, Washington, D.C., as quoted by Walker and Lev (p. 280). The following schools were selected:

Saint Mathew School
Saint Agnes School
Saint Kevin School

Of these schools the total grade five population was requested. Two classes of grade fives in each school were made available and assigned for the study. The mean age of the total sample was 11.1 years, ranging

from 9.11 to 13.4 years. The mean intelligence quotient according to the Otis Alpha (form A) was 112.4. The range extended from 73 - 143.

To explore moral concepts and moral judgments of grade five children in an attempt to identify patterns of responses according to sex and intelligence the sample was divided into six groups. Table I presents the division of the sample according to sex and intelligence.

TABLE I

I.Q. AND SEX DISTRIBUTION INTO
SIX GROUPS FOR ANALYSES

GROUP	I.Q. SCORES	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF N
Low	73 - 99	21	8	29	17.2
Average	100 - 120	46	45	91	53.8
High	121 - 143	22	27	49	29
TOTALS	73 - 143	89	80	169	100.0

The above division into six groups for analysis is based upon the I.Q. distribution of the total sample. Table II presents the distribution of the total sample according to intelligence. The mean I.Q. of the Low, Average and High groups is 92.8, 110.7 and 127.4 respectively.

TABLE II
I.Q. DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL SAMPLE

SCORES	NO. OF BOYS	NO. OF GIRLS	TOTALS
148 - 142		1	1
141 - 134	1	5	6
133 - 126	7	10	17
125 - 118	18	19	37
117 - 110	26	15	41
109 - 102	12	17	29
101 - 94	14	12	26
93 - 86	7	1	8
85 - 78	3		3
77 - 70	1		1
 TOTALS	89	80	169

II. THE INSTRUMENTS AND THE ADMINISTRATION PROCEDURE

In order to carry out this exploratory investigation the following procedure was set up. The classroom teacher was not present while the testing took place and the children were assured that their answers would neither be seen by their teachers nor turned into the office.

The subjects were told that there were no right or wrong answers. They were asked to do their own thinking and to put on their papers their own personal answers according to exactly what they thought themselves. They were informed that spelling did not matter. Immediately preceding the testing they were told that the investigation aimed at exploring

children's thinking regarding certain moral topics.

To gather the necessary data the following tests were used.

1. 'Ideal Person' test. The children were simply asked to name the person they would most like to be like, tell what they did and give reasons for their choice. It was stressed that anyone could be named, man or woman.

2. 'Moral Wickedness' test. The children were invited to name and describe what they considered to be the most wicked deeds or actions, listing them in descending order of wickedness. They were told that the list could be as long as they wished. 'Descending order' was explained and demonstrated on the blackboard.

3. 'Moral Incidents' test. Ten hypothetical situations involving honesty, loyalty, responsibility and punishment were presented and the children were asked to choose among three alternative ways of handling or reacting to the situation. Each incident with the accompanying three possibilities were read to the class by the investigator and then the children were asked to underline whichever of the three possible replies seemed to be the most just or sensible way of handling the situation in question. Permission to use this test was received from Dr. J.B. Edwards of the North Wales Child Guidance Clinic.

4. Student Rating Scale. This scale was constructed by Sister M. Laforce for a study carried out in 1967 at the University of Alberta, Edmonton. It is a thirty item scale partially modelled on Osgood's

Semantic Differential. The scale was included in this study in order to assess the students moral traits as judged by themselves. Preliminary instruction regarding the marking of the rating scale was demonstrated. The polar words 'ugly' and 'beautiful' were assumed to be meaningful opposites and used for the demonstration along with the following linguistic modifiers.

The children were told that if they felt that they were extremely ugly or extremely beautiful they were to mark their scale thus:

Beautiful _____ X Ugly.

Beautiful X _____ Ugly.

If they felt that they were not extremely one or the other but that they were quite ugly or quite beautiful then they were to mark their scale as follows:

Beautiful _____ X _____ Ugly.

Beautiful _____ X _____ Ugly.

If they felt that they were only slightly ugly or slightly beautiful then they were to mark their scale thus:

Beautiful _____ X _____ Ugly.

Beautiful _____ X _____ Ugly.

However, if they felt that they were neither ugly or beautiful or equally ugly and beautiful they were to place their check mark thus:

Beautiful _____ X _____ Ugly.

The following several pages are examples of the instruments used in this investigation.

Name:

School:

Grade:

Age:

Birthdate:

Sex:

1. Ideal Person Test

Name the person you would most wish to be like and give reasons for your choice.

2. Moral Wickedness Test

Describe what you consider to be the most "wicked" deeds or actions, listing them in descending order of wickedness.

3. Moral Incidents' Test

Incident No. 1.

The teacher had warned Tom not to run wildly into the classroom. Tom forgot, ran in wildly and knocked a glass jar full of water, on to the floor and broke it. Bill, walking into the room behind him, accidentally slipped and knocked twenty glass jars on to the floor and broke them. Should the teacher:

- (a) Punish Tom most?
- (b) Punish Bill most?
- (c) Punish both boys the same?

Incident No. 2.

Joan is saving up to go on a school outing. She has been looking forward to this for a long time. But one Saturday her friend Mary asks her to go to the pictures. Joan can only go if she spends some of the money she has been saving for the outing. Do you think:

- (a) Joan should go to the pictures?
- (b) Joan should stay at home?
- (c) Joan should ask her mother what to do?

Incident No. 3.

Jack was one of the best players in the school football team. One Friday evening the team had an important game to play, and needed all their best players to win. Jack went home to see a program on television. He did not worry how the school did in the game. Do you think:

- (a) Jack should have played for the school?
- (b) Jack should have gone home to watch television?
- (c) Jack should have asked his mother what to do?

Incident No. 4.

Mary and Joan went into a store and found that the store-keeper was out. There was some money lying on the counter. Mary took a dime and Joan a quarter. They put the money in their purses. Do you think:

- (a) Mary should be blamed most?
- (b) Joan should be blamed most?
- (c) Both should be blamed the same?

Incident No. 5.

Stanley was a new boy in the class. In a test he saw other boys cheating, so he cheated too and copied many answers. Another boy, Peter, had cheated on a previous test and had been warned by the teacher not to do it again. But Peter cheated again and the teacher caught him when he had copied one answer. Then the teacher also caught Stanley after he had copied many answers. Do you think the teacher should:

- (a) Punish Stanley most?
- (b) Punish Peter most?
- (c) Punish both boys the same?

Incident No. 6.

George's family was so poor that they could not afford to buy candy for his sister Pat who was sick in the hospital. One day, George took three bars of chocolate from a shop and gave them to Pat in the hospital. Do you think:

- (a) George should have taken the chocolates?
- (b) George should not have taken the chocolates?
- (c) George can be excused?

Incident No. 7.

Fred and his sister Carol were on a bus one day and the conductor gave them a quarter too much change. Do you think they should have:

- (a) Told the conductor
- (b) Kept the money and not told him?

(c) Asked their mother what to do?

Incident No. 8.

Jean was sent to get a dozen eggs for her mother. Instead of taking the eggs straight home she began to play ball with her friend. The ball hit the eggs and smashed them. Jean told her mother that she had slipped and fallen on the pavement. Do you think:

(a) Jean should have told the truth?

(b) Jean should not have told the truth?

(c) Jean could be excused?

Incident No. 9.

In a school, there was a strict rule that the children should always be on time. Dick came to the school late after having been already reminded twice about this rule. Do you think Dick should:

(a) Be warned and let off again?

(b) Asked to make the time up after school?

(c) Be punished?

Incident No. 10.

Molly has promised her friend to go to her house for tea. When the afternoon comes Molly finds she will miss her favorite program on television. Do you think Molly should:

(a) Go to tea with her friend?

(b) Watch her television program?

(c) Ask her mother what to do?

4. Student Rating Scale.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter will present the procedures for assessing the data, the results of a qualitative analyses of the various tests, and the results of the statistical analysis of the data.

I. PROCEDURES FOR ASSESSING THE DATA

The data for this chapter were collected from tests administered in three Separate Schools in the City of Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. As previously reported the sample was divided into six cells for the purposes of analysis. The purpose was to investigate moral concepts and moral judgments of grade five children in an attempt to identify patterns of responses according to sex and intelligence.

Booklets containing four tests were allotted for each student. These testing instruments included the 'Ideal Person' test, the 'Moral Wickedness' test, the 'Moral Incidents' test and a Student Rating Scale.

The results of the various tests were scored and tabulated in the following manner. The frequency of occurrence count was derived from the data and tabulated in the form of raw scores and percentages for the first three tests and the mean scores were calculated for the fourth test, a Student Rating Scale.

The results of the 'Ideal Person' test were tabulated into categories according to the name and occupation of the person named.

A second tabulation on the same data was drawn up to show the reasons offered for the children's choices of their ideal person.

The findings of the 'Moral Wickedness' test were tabulated according to the action named, in the form of raw scores and percentages.

In regard to the 'Moral Incidents' test tables were drawn up to present the replies to incidents concerned with loyalty, responsibility, punishment and honesty according to sex and intelligence.

The Student Rating Scales were combined for scoring purposes into six cells. In each cell the mean score was calculated for each item and the pooled judgments of each group were plotted on a graph for comparisons. The pooled results in the form of mean scores are recorded on graphs comparing boys and girls of the three groups of low, average and high intelligence; comparing total boys as against total girls and lastly Figure 6 depicts the mean of each item for the total group. Figures 1 to 6 record this data.

The Chi-Square test was applied to the data in order to detect any discrepancy between the observed frequencies and the theoretical frequencies that might be expected.

The tables and figures included in this chapter record information about each test separately, and were expanded upon as they are presented.

II. THE RESULTS OF THE TESTING

At the time of the testing the classroom teachers were not present. The children were assured that their answers would not be seen by their teacher or turned into the office. The tests were not timed. The students were also told that there were no right or wrong answers and that spelling did not count. The aim of the investigation was explained to them and they were asked to give their full cooperation regarding the maintenance of a quiet atmosphere for thinking in order that they would be able to write exactly what they thought regarding the questions presented to them. The general directions given at the time of the testing followed almost exactly the general introduction to the testing session as described by the Pringle and Edwards (1964) study.

Ideal Person Test

To respond to this test the children were asked to name the person they would most wish to be like and to give reasons for their choice. They were reminded that anyone could be named, men or women.

A tabulated view of the results of the Ideal Person test are shown in Table III.

As Table III indicates twenty-five percent of these grade five students chose peers as their ideal person, with the girls responsible for at least two third of the raw score. The responses of girls of high and average intelligence accounted for the highest proportion of the raw score.

TABLE III
 'IDEAL PERSON' ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

The second highest total percentage was for the category of famous people. The boys were responsible for approximately five-sixths of the total 16 percent of the children who chose this category.

Sixteen percent of the total group also chose people within the immediate circle of family or relatives. The boys of high intelligence and the girls of average intelligence gave the most responses in this category. The girls overall total choices were just slightly higher than the boys overall total in this category.

Movie and television personages account for fourteen percent of the total choices with the raw scores and percentages for both the boys and the girls of all three intellectual levels being approximately equal.

The community circle of friends, neighbors and community workers account for twelve percent of the total number of ideal persons chosen. The girls of high and girls of low intelligence and the boys of average intelligence gave the most responses in this category.

Heroes of the sport world account for ten percent of the total ideal persons selected. Boys in all three intellectual groups gave this category more often than the girls.

Six percent of the total number of ideal persons selected were religious figures. Girls of high and girls of average intelligence and boys of the low intelligence group selected this category more often than their counterparts.

The children were asked to give reasons for their choice of an ideal person. These reasons were recorded in the form of raw scores marking the frequency of occurrence in any one category. This frequency was then converted into percentages. The reasons given are tabulated in Table IV.

As seen in Table IV physical attributes account for twenty-six percent of the reasons offered by the total population. Girls of average intelligence and boys of high and boys of the low intelligence groups gave this reason for choosing their ideal more often than their counterparts.

Personality, being famous or popular, was considered third in importance as reasons for choosing an ideal person. This category accounted for nineteen percent of the reasons given. Girls in the high intelligence group and boys in the average intelligence group led in offering this response. Neither the boys nor the girls in the low intelligence group mentioned this category.

Ideal persons were chosen because of their intelligence or smartness by sixteen percent of the total population. Girls of high and girls of low intelligence and the boys of average intelligence gave this reason for their choice more often than their counterparts.

Kindness, respectfulness, and service to others account for thirteen percent of the reasons given for a choice of an ideal person. For kindness and respectfulness to others the girls led in all three intellectual groups in giving this reason for choosing an ideal person.

TABLE IV

REASONS FOR CHOOSING 'IDEAL PERSON' ACCORDING
TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

REASON	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	
	LOW			AVERAGE			HIGH			TOTAL			
	21	8	29	45	46	91	22	27	49	89	80	169	
Physical attributes	N	5	0	5	10	16	26	6	7	13	21	23	44
	%	23	0	17	22	34	28	27	25	26	23	28	26
Talents	N	3	1	4	14	11	25	2	6	8	19	18	37
	%	14	12	13	31	23	27	9	22	16	21	22	21
Personality	N	0	0	0	9	8	17	1	15	16	10	23	33
	%	0	0	0	20	17	18	4	55	32	11	28	19
Intelligence	N	2	1	3	5	11	16	3	6	9	10	18	28
	%	9	12	10	11	23	17	13	22	18	11	22	16
Kindness	N	2	1	3	2	11	13	1	5	6	5	17	22
	%	9	12	10	4	23	14	4	18	12	5	21	13
Service to others	N	3	1	4	4	9	13	4	1	5	11	11	22
	%	14	12	13	8	19	14	18	3	10	12	13	13
Adventurous	N	1	2	3	8	2	10	3	1	4	12	5	17
	%	4	25	10	17	4	10	13	3	8	13	6	10
Nice	N	1	2	3	3	5	8	2	4	6	6	11	17
	%	4	25	10	6	10	8	9	14	12	6	13	10
Wealthy	N	1	0	1	7	2	9	2	2	4	10	4	14
	%	4	0	3	15	4	9	9	7	8	11	5	8
Brave	N	2	0	2	3	1	4	2	1	3	7	2	9
	%	9	0	6	6	2	4	9	3	6	7	2	5
Good	N	2	1	3	1	5	6	0	0	0	3	6	9
	%	9	12	10	2	10	6	0	0	0	3	7	5
Religious	N	1	0	1	2	1	3	0	2	2	3	3	6
	%	4	0	3	4	2	3	0	7	4	3	3	3
Inventive	N	0	0	0	2	0	2	3	0	3	5	0	5
	%	0	0	0	4	0	2	13	0	6	5	0	2
Other reasons	N	6	2	8	7	11	18	2	7	9	15	20	35
	%	28	25	27	15	23	19	9	25	18	16	25	20
Total number of reasons		31	57	88	77	93	170	29	11	40	137	161	298

In the category of service to others the boys led in the high and low intelligence groups while the girls led in the average intelligence group choosing this reason for admiring a person as an ideal.

Ten percent of the total population made up mainly of the boys of high and average intelligence groups and the girls of the low intelligence group chose being adventurous as a reason for choosing their ideal person.

Ten percent of the total population gave the reasons: nice, gentle, patient and doesn't argue as reasons for choosing their ideal. The girls of all three intellectual groups contributed most to the raw scores in this category.

Wealth or having things was next in importance as a reason for the choice of an ideal person. This category accounts for eight percent of the total group with the boys in all three intellectual groups choosing this category more than the girls in the same groups.

Being brave or courageous was given as a reason for a choice of an ideal by five percent of the group with the boys leading in all three intellectual groups.

The category good or good to me was also given as a reason for their choice by five percent of the total group. No one in the high intelligence group gave this reason for their choice of an ideal person and the girls led in both the average and low intelligence groups for choosing this reason.

Two percent gave being an inventor or being a discoverer as a reason for their choice of an ideal person. All five of these students were boys; three in the high intelligence group and two in the average intelligence group.

The category marked 'other' reasons accounted for a variety of reasons offered by twenty percent of the total group. These reasons included such things as: "funny, good leader, good manager, good example, cheerful, shows no pride, like him and would like to be liked by him, if good in sports I would have more friends."

The total number of reasons offered was 298. The total number and average number of each group is shown in the following table.

TABLE V

TOTAL NUMBER AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF REASONS GIVEN FOR CHOOSING AN IDEAL PERSON . . . ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	HIGH			MEDIUM			LOW			TOTAL		
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
Total number in each group	22	47	49	46	45	91	21	8	29	89	80	169
Total number of reasons offered	31	57	88	77	93	170	29	11	40	137	161	298
Average number of reasons offered by each group	1.4	2.1	1.8	2.0	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.5	2.0	1.7

As can be seen from Table V the boys and girls of the low intelligence group gave the least number of reasons for their choices while

those of the medium and high intelligence groups both gave approximately 1.8 reasons each. The girls in both these groups gave on the average two reasons each. It will be noted that the average number of answers extends only from 1.3 to 2.1 per student.

The following table will depict the number of boys and girls who chose people of their own sex and those who chose ideal persons of the opposite sex.

TABLE VI

NUMBER OF BOYS AND GIRLS CHOOSING PERSONS OF THEIR OWN AND THE OPPOSITE SEX AS IDEAL PERSONS

Int. Category	High	Medium	Low	Total
Girls choosing men	1	9	0	N=10 %=12
Girls choosing women	26	37	8	N=71 %=88
Boys choosing women	2	2	0	N= 4 %= 5
Boys choosing men	20	44	21	N=85 %=95

The summary of Table VI showing the number of boys and girls choosing people of their own sex and those choosing ideal persons of the opposite sex indicated that a higher percentage of girls chose persons of the opposite sex than did the boys.

The ideal persons most frequently named by the boys were: Bobby Hull (3), Elvis Presley (3), Mickey Mantle (2), John F. Kennedy (2), Martin Luther King (2), Walt Disney (2), U. Thant (2). Ideal persons

named most often by the girls were: Jesus (3), Florence Nightengale (2), Elizabeth Montgomery (2), Joan of Arc (2), Doris Day (2), Nancy Green (2).

Some interesting qualitative differences were seen within the range of responses. Several examples chosen at random will illustrate the type and range of these responses.

Geoffrey, a bright boy offered, "I would like to be like Albert Einstein because he discovered the atom bomb ($E=MC^2$). He was a man who loved physics and Atomic energy. Even though he wasn't good in math. But since I'm good at math I may be a good scientist just like him. Since he was smart enough to invent the atom bomb I have plans for jets going 100 times the speed of light. I have plans for a new Atomic Nuclear turbine."

Michael, another bright boy gave, "I would like to be like Mr. Trudeau. Mr. Trudeau is the Prime Minister of Canada. I would like to be like him because I know and everybody in Canada knows that he will make Canada a great country."

Norma, a bright girl offered, "S.B. She is my grandmother. I think I'd like to be like her because she's a wonderful, kind and loving person."

A.M., an average girl offered, "I would like to be B.G. The reason I would like to be like here is: (1) She is smart in her tests and behaviors. (2) Everyone likes her. (3) Everyone obeys her. (4) She gets to do anything she wants. (5) She is pretty. (6) She is good in gym and all subjects."

Gary, an average boy wrote, "Bobby Hull. He is a hockey player. I would like to be like him because he has a 120 mph slap shot and he gets good money."

Joe, a dull boy gave, "Jary Loise. The thing I like about him is, he's rily funny and mice looking. He's got all the number one girls because I have read alot about him."

Edward, another dull boy gave, "I would lik to be lik by brouth whane because he is big and strong."

Moral Wickedness Test

For this test the children were requested to describe what they considered to be the most wicked deeds or actions listing them in descending order of wickedness. The results are reported in Table VII which records the categories of moral wickedness named by the children along with the raw score and percentage score which represents the frequency of occurrence count in each of the groups.

As can be seen from Table VII murder was considered to be the most wicked action by almost every child.

Stealing was considered a wicked deed by the 44 percent of the total group. The girls in all three ability levels gave this response more often than their male counterparts.

Physical cruelty, explained in a variety of ways, accounted for 33 percent of the total group. The boys in the high and low intelligence groups gave this response more often than the girls while an almost equal number of boys and girls in the average intelligence group mentioned this category as a wicked deed.

Mental cruelty explained in terms of getting blamed for things one didn't do, hating, hurting other's feelings, being mean, name calling and teasing was named by 18 percent of the total population. The girls in all three ability groups mentioned this category. The boys of low intelligence did not mention this category at all and only one boy of high intelligence cited this category as being wicked.

TABLE VII

MORALLY WICKED ACTIONS ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	
	LOW			AVERAGE			HIGH			TOTAL			
	21	8	29	45	46	91	22	27	49	89	80	169	
Murder	N	20	8	28	45	46	91	22	21	43	87	75	162
	%	95	100	96	100	100	100	77	87	97	93	93	95
Stealing	N	9	7	16	16	22	38	8	14	22	33	43	76
	%	42	87	55	35	47	41	36	51	44	37	53	44
Physical Cruelty	N	8	1	9	13	14	27	11	9	20	32	24	56
	%	38	12	31	29	30	29	50	33	41	36	30	33
Mental Cruelty	N	1	8	9	6	12	18	0	4	4	7	24	31
	%	4	100	31	13	26	19	0	14	8	7	30	18
Vandalism	N	3	3	6	4	8	12	2	3	5	9	14	23
	%	14	37	20	8	17	13	9	11	10	10	17	13
Lying	N	1	1	2	6	5	11	0	8	8	7	14	21
	%	4	12	6	13	10	12	0	29	16	7	17	12
Swearing	N	3	2	5	8	5	13	0	1	1	11	8	19
	%	14	24	17	17	10	14	0	3	2	12	12	11
War	N	2	1	3	5	4	9	3	5	8	10	10	20
	%	9	12	10	11	8	9	13	18	16	11	10	11
Sins	N	1	2	3	3	7	10	2	2	4	6	11	17
	%	4	15	10	6	15	10	9	7	8	6	13	10
Kidnapping	N	2	1	3	1	7	8	1	1	2	4	9	13
	%	9	12	10	2	15	8	4	3	4	4	11	7
Suicide	N	1	1	2	6	4	10	0	1	1	7	6	13
	%	4	12	6	13	8	10	0	3	2	7	7	7
Cruelty to Animals	N	0	1	1	1	5	6	2	2	4	3	8	11
	%	0	12	3	2	10	6	9	7	8	3	10	6
Family Problems	N	0	0	0	1	6	7	1	2	3	2	8	10
	%	0	0	0	2	13	7	4	7	6	2	10	5
Prejudice	N	0	1	1	1	2	3	0	4	4	1	7	8
	%	0	12	10	2	4	3	0	14	8	1	8	4
Drugs	N	1	1	1	1	4	5	0	0	0	2	4	6
	%	4	0	3	2	8	5	0	0	0	2	5	3
Others	N	14	2	16	11	4	15	6	2	8	21	8	29
	%	19	25	20	24	8	16	27	7	16	23	10	16
TOTAL		56	39	95	128	161	289	61	79	140	245	299	524

Vandalism was mentioned by 13 percent of the total population. The girls in all three ability groups mentioned this category more often than the boys.

Lying was listed as a wicked deed by 12 percent of the total group. The girls in the high and low ability groups and the boys in the average ability group cited this category more often than their counterparts in these groups.

War and rioting was named by 11 percent of the total group. A higher percentage of girls in the high and low ability groups and boys in the average ability group mentioned this category.

Direct reference to sinning, selling one's soul, hating was made by 10 percent of the children. A higher percentage of girls in high and average ability groups, and boys in the low intelligence groups highlighted this area more often than their counterparts.

Kidnapping was named as a wicked deed by 7 percent of the total group. Girls of high and average ability groups and boys of low ability offered this response more often than their counterparts.

A higher percentage of girls in the high and low intelligence groups and boys in the average group named suicide as a wicked deed. Suicide as a wicked deed was named by 7 percent of the total population. The boys of low intelligence did not name this category as a wicked deed.

Cruelty to animals was named by 6 percent of the total group. Girls of high and average intelligence and boys in the low intelligence

group mentioned this category more often than their counterparts.

Family Problems was cited by 5 percent of the total group. Neither the boys nor the girls of the high ability group named this category as a wicked deed. The girls of both the average and low ability groups mentioned this category more than the boys of these groups.

Being prejudiced, especially against negroes was named as a wicked deed by 4 percent of the total group. The boys of high and low intellectual ability did not name this category as wicked and the girls in the average intelligence group named this deed more often than the average boys.

Pushing, selling or forcing people to take drugs was named by one boy of high intelligence and, four girls and one boy of average intelligence. No one in the low intelligence group named this action as wicked. This category was named by only 3 percent of the total population.

A category entitled 'others' accounts for the deeds named by 16 percent of the population. This category included such things as: "smoking", "going around with long hair like a hipe", "making a person change his religion", "monsters on T.V.", "haunted houses", "looking at B. because she's ugly", "drinking", "getting stitches", "being strict", "doing chores", "selling bad things to kill", "breaking jail", "horror movies", "being a nudist", "dying".

The following table will indicate the number of students, the number of wicked deeds mentioned and the average number of wicked deeds named by each group.

TABLE VIII

TOTAL NUMBER AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF MORALLY WICKED ACTIONS
ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	HIGH			MEDIUM			LOW			TOTAL		
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
# of students	21	8	29	46	45	91	222	27	49	89	80	169
# of deeds given	56	39	95	128	161	289	61	79	140	245	279	524
Av. per student	2.6	4.8	3.2	2.8	3.5	3.1	2.7	2.5	2.8	2.7	3.4	3.1

As recorded by the above table children of high intelligence tended on the average to give more responses than children of average and low intelligence. The total difference noted in this regard was very slight. The average number of responses as given by the students is stated below in descending order.

Girls of high intelligence gave 4.8 responses per student.

Girls of average intelligence gave 3.5 responses per student.

Boys of average intelligence gave 2.8 responses per student.

Boys of low intelligence gave 2.7 responses per student.

Boys of high intelligence gave 2.6 responses per student.

Girls of low intelligence gave 2.5 responses per student.

On the average girls gave 3.4 responses per student while boys gave 2.7 responses per student. The overall total indicated that each student gave an average of 3.1 responses to the Wicked Deeds test.

After the data were analyzed quantitatively it was interesting to note qualitative differences in regard to responses offered by the children of the three ability groups. The following are direct quotations, selected at random from the papers in each sex and ability cell.

Coleen, a slow girl offered "murder-it will hurt you more".

Wesley, a slow boy wrote "murder-its goroy and horrible".

Gail, an average girl listed "My mother and father not living together. I want my dad to live with us and my mother to be happy".

Richard, an average boy stated, "I think when you push a person down a ten foot razor blade into boiling oil. Think because it doesn't tickle to have this done."

Andrea, a bright girl offered, "The death penalty. If a person murders someone and the death penalty is given to the murderer, two lives are being taken. A long stay in jail is good enough. Puting a young child on a baby harness because it is treating your child like an animal".

Kevin, a bright boy wrote, "eyes being cut out because you could see the knife go into your eyes, beheaded -- you know you will be killed. Whipping and then pouring salt on the cuts -- you can see the whip come at you and watch the salt sink into your skin".

'Moral Incidents' Test

This testing instrument had the children address themselves to ten hypothetical situations involving honesty, loyalty, responsibility and punishment and asked them to choose one of three alternative methods of meeting or reacting to each situation.

The 'Moral Incidents' test was initially devised by M.L. Pringle and J.B. Edwards of Wales and was used by the investigator with the permission of Dr. Edwards. The directions for and analyses of this test followed directly the above investigators plan as set out in their article of 1964 and contained in the British Journal of Social Clinical Psy. (Vol. 3, pp. 203,205-210).

For the purpose of discussing the results the ten situations were grouped as in the Pringle and Edwards (1964) study, according to four basic themes; honesty, loyalty, responsibility and punishment. The order in which these themes were presented to the student is indicated by the number assigned to each incident. The children were asked to choose one of three alternative methods of meeting or reacting to each situation. It was stressed that there were no right or wrong answers.

The four incidents concerned with problems of honesty read as follows:

Incident No. 4.

Mary and Joan went into a store and found that the store-keeper was out. There was some money lying on the counter. Mary took a dime and Joan a quarter. They put the money in their purses. Do you think:

- (a) Mary should be blamed most?
- (b) Joan should be blamed most?
- (c) Both should be blamed the same?

Incident No. 6.

George's family was so poor that they could not afford to buy candy for his sister Pat who was sick in the hospital. One day, George took three bars of chocolate from a shop and gave them to Pat in the hospital. Do you think:

- (a) George should have taken the chocolates?
- (b) George should not have taken the chocolates?
- (c) George can be excused?

Incident No. 7.

Fred and his sister Carol were on a bus one day and the conductor gave them a quarter too much change. Do you think they should have:

- (a) Told the conductor?
- (b) Kept the money and not told him?
- (c) Asked their mother what to do?

Incident No. 8.

Jean was sent to get a dozen eggs for her mother. Instead of taking the eggs straight home she began to play ball with her friend. The ball hit the eggs and smashed them. Jean told her mother that she had slipped and fallen on the pavement. Do you think:

- (a) Jean should have told the truth?
- (b) Jean should not have told the truth?
- (c) Jean could be excused?

The replies received to these four incidents are shown in Table IX.

In the two straight forward problems (Incidents 7 and 8) the majority of children chose to handle the situations with honesty and truthfulness in their responses.

In the choice of responses for Incident 4 which is more complex, in view of the fact that one girl took a greater amount of money than the other, there is no great difference in the responses of the boys or girls or among the different intelligence groups. In Incident 6,

TABLE IX

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 REPLIES TO INCIDENTS CONCERNED WITH HONESTY
 ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
	LOW			AVERAGE			HIGH			TOTAL		
	21	8	29	45	46	91	22	27	49	89	80	169
<u>Incident 4</u>												
Mary blamed most.	N	0	0	0	2	2	4	2	1	3	4	3
	%	0	0	0	4	4	4	9	4	6	5	4
Joan blamed most.	N	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	0	3	4	0
	%	0	0	0	2	0	1	14	0	6	5	0
Both blamed the same.	N	21	8	29	42	44	36	17	26	43	80	79
	%	100	100	100	93	96	95	77	96	88	90	96
<u>Incident 6</u>												
Should take chocolates.	N	2	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	2	1
	%	9	0	7	0	2	1	0	0	0	3	1
Should not take chocs.	N	14	4	18	24	36	60	14	20	34	52	60
	%	66	50	62	53	78	66	64	74	69	59	75
Can be excused.	N	5	4	9	21	9	30	8	7	15	34	20
	%	24	50	31	47	20	33	36	26	31	38	24
<u>Incident 7</u>												
Tell conductor.	N	19	8	27	41	42	83	20	26	46	80	76
	%	91	100	93	91	91	91	92	96	94	90	94
Keep money.	N	2	0	2	2	3	5	1	1	2	5	4
	%	9	0	7	4	6	5	4	4	4	6	5
Ask mother.	N	0	0	0	2	1	3	1	0	1	3	1
	%	0	0	0	4	1	3	4	0	2	4	1
<u>Incident 8</u>												
Tell the truth.	N	15	8	23	42	45	87	21	27	48	78	80
	%	71	100	52	93	98	96	96	100	98	87	89
Not tell the truth.	N	5	8	13	2	0	2	0	0	0	7	0
	%	24	10	45	4	0	2	0	0	0	9	0
Can be excused.	N	1	0	1	1	1	2	1	0	1	3	1
	%	5	0	3	2	2	2	4	0	2	4	1

because of the extenuating circumstances of poverty and illness there is unanimity. Girls of high and average intelligence and boys of low intelligence gave a higher percentage of 'should not take the chocolates' responses than their counterparts while boys of high and average and girls of low intelligence gave a higher percentage of 'can be excused' responses. Only 2 percent of the total group felt 'George should have taken the chocolates'.

The incidents concerned with responsibility and loyalty read as follows:

Incident No. 2.

Joan is saving up to go on a school outing. She has been looking forward to this for a long time. But one Saturday her friend Mary asked her to go to the pictures. Joan can only go if she spends some of the money she has been saving for the outing. Do you think:

- (a) Joan should go to the pictures?
- (b) Joan should stay at home?
- (c) Joan should ask her mother what to do?

Incident No. 3.

Jack was one of the best players in the school football team. One Friday evening the team had an important game to play, and needed all their best players to win. Jack went home to see a program on television. He did not worry how the school did in the game. Do you think:

- (a) Jack should have gone home to watch television?
- (b) Jack should have played for the school?
- (c) Jack should have asked his mother what to do?

Incident No. 10.

Molly has promised her friend to go to her house for tea. When the afternoon comes Molly finds she will miss her favorite program on television. Do you think Molly should:

- (a) Go to tea with her friend?
- (b) Watch her television program?
- (c) Ask her mother what to do?

The replies as recorded in Table X show greatest unanimity in Incident 3. Both boys and girls of all three intellectual levels agreed that Jack should have played for the school.

Incident 2 shows a marked division of opinions in regard to handling the situation with the highest percentage of each group setting for 'asking Mother' what to do. Incident 10 records that the highest percentage of all groups favor Molly keeping her promise to go to tea with her friend.

The last three incidents presented were concerned with problems of punishment and read as follows:

Incident No. 1.

The teacher had warned Tom not to run wildly into the classroom. Tom forgot, ran in wildly and knocked a glass jar, full of water, on the floor and broke it. Bill, walking into the room behind him, accidentally slipped and knocked twenty glass jars on to the floor and broke them. Should the teacher:

- (a) Punish Tom most?
- (b) Punish Bill most?
- (c) Punish both boys the same?

REPLIES TO INCIDENTS CONCERNED WITH RESPONSIBILITY AND
LOYALTY ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
	LOW			AVERAGE			HIGH			TOTAL		
	21	8	29	45	46	91	22	27	49	89	80	169
<u>Incident 2</u>												
Go to the movies.	N	0	1	1	2	1	3	0	3	3	2	5
	%	0	13	3	4	2	3	0	11	6	3	7
Stay at home.	N	3	2	5	16	12	28	7	12	19	26	26
	%	14	25	17	36	25	31	32	44	39	29	52
Ask mother.	N	18	5	23	27	33	60	15	12	27	60	50
	%	86	62	80	60	72	66	68	44	55	68	65
<u>Incident 3</u>												
Play for the school.	N	21	8	29	42	46	88	22	26	48	85	80
	%	100	100	100	93	100	97	100	96	98	96	99
Go home.	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ask mother.	N	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	1	1	3	1
	%	0	0	0	7	0	3	0	4	2	4	3
<u>Incident 10</u>												
Go to tea.	N	12	5	17	39	43	82	18	23	41	69	71
	%	57	68	59	87	94	90	82	85	84	78	88
Watch T.V.	N	5	0	5	3	1	4	1	0	1	9	1
	%	24	0	17	6	2	4	4	0	2	10	6
Ask Mother.	N	4	3	7	3	2	5	3	4	7	10	9
	%	19	32	24	6	4	5	14	15	14	12	11

Incident No. 5.

Stanley was a new boy in the class. In a test he saw other boys cheating, so he cheated too and copies many answers. Another boy, Peter, has cheated on a previous test and had been warned by the teacher not to do it again. But Peter cheated again and the teacher caught him when he had copied one answer. The teacher also caught Stanley after he had copied many answers. Do you think the teacher should:

- (a) Punish Stanley most?
- (b) Punish Peter most?
- (c) Punish both boys the same?

Incident No. 9.

In a school, there was a strict rule that the children should always be on time. Dick came to school late after having been already reminded twice about this rule. Do you think Dick should:

- (a) Be warned and let off again?
- (b) Be asked to make the time up after school?
- (c) Be punished?

The replies recorded for these incidents are shown in Table XI.

The replies offered as solutions to these hypothetical situations show less unanimity than the first two groups of incidents.

In Incident 1 the highest percentage for boys and girls in all three intellectual groups chose to 'punish Tom the most'. The percentages of boys and girls of high intelligence indicated the highest proportion choosing this answer to the problem.

Incident 5 sees the majority of the boys and girls of the low and average intelligence groups choosing to 'punish both boys the same'. A greater majority of boys and girls of the high ability group chose to 'punish Peter most'.

TABLE XI

REPLIES TO INCIDENTS CONCERNED WITH PUNISHMENT
ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
	LOW			AVERAGE			HIGH			TOTAL		
	21	8	29	45	46	91	22	27	49	89	80	169
<u>Incident 1</u>												
Punish Tom most.	N	10	5	15	35	34	69	18	24	42	63	59
	%	48	62	52	78	74	76	82	89	86	71	74
Punish Bill most.	N	3	0	3	3	1	4	0	0	0	6	1
	%	14	0	10	7	2	4	0	0	0	7	1
Punish both same.	N	8	3	11	7	11	18	4	3	7	19	17
	%	38	38	38	15	24	20	18	11	14	21	22
<u>Incident 5</u>												
Punish Stan most.	N	1	0	1	3	0	3	3	2	5	7	2
	%	5	0	3	6	0	3	14	7	10	8	3
Punish Peter most.	N	6	4	10	20	13	33	11	14	25	37	31
	%	29	50	35	45	28	36	50	52	51	42	38
Punish both same.	N	14	4	18	22	33	55	8	11	19	44	48
	%	66	50	62	49	72	61	36	41	39	50	59
<u>Incident 9</u>												
Be warned.	N	2	0	2	3	0	3	2	2	4	7	2
	%	9	0	7	6	0	3	9	7	8	9	5
Make up time after school.	N	11	3	14	27	32	59	12	15	27	50	50
	%	53	38	48	60	70	65	55	56	55	56	59
Be punished.	N	8	5	13	15	14	29	8	10	18	31	29
	%	38	62	45	33	30	32	36	37	37	35	36

Incident 9 shows the boys and girls of all three intelligence groups except the girls of low intelligence choosing 'make up the time after school' as the best solution to the problem. The girls of low intelligence chose solving the problem with 'Dick being punished'.

Student Rating Scale

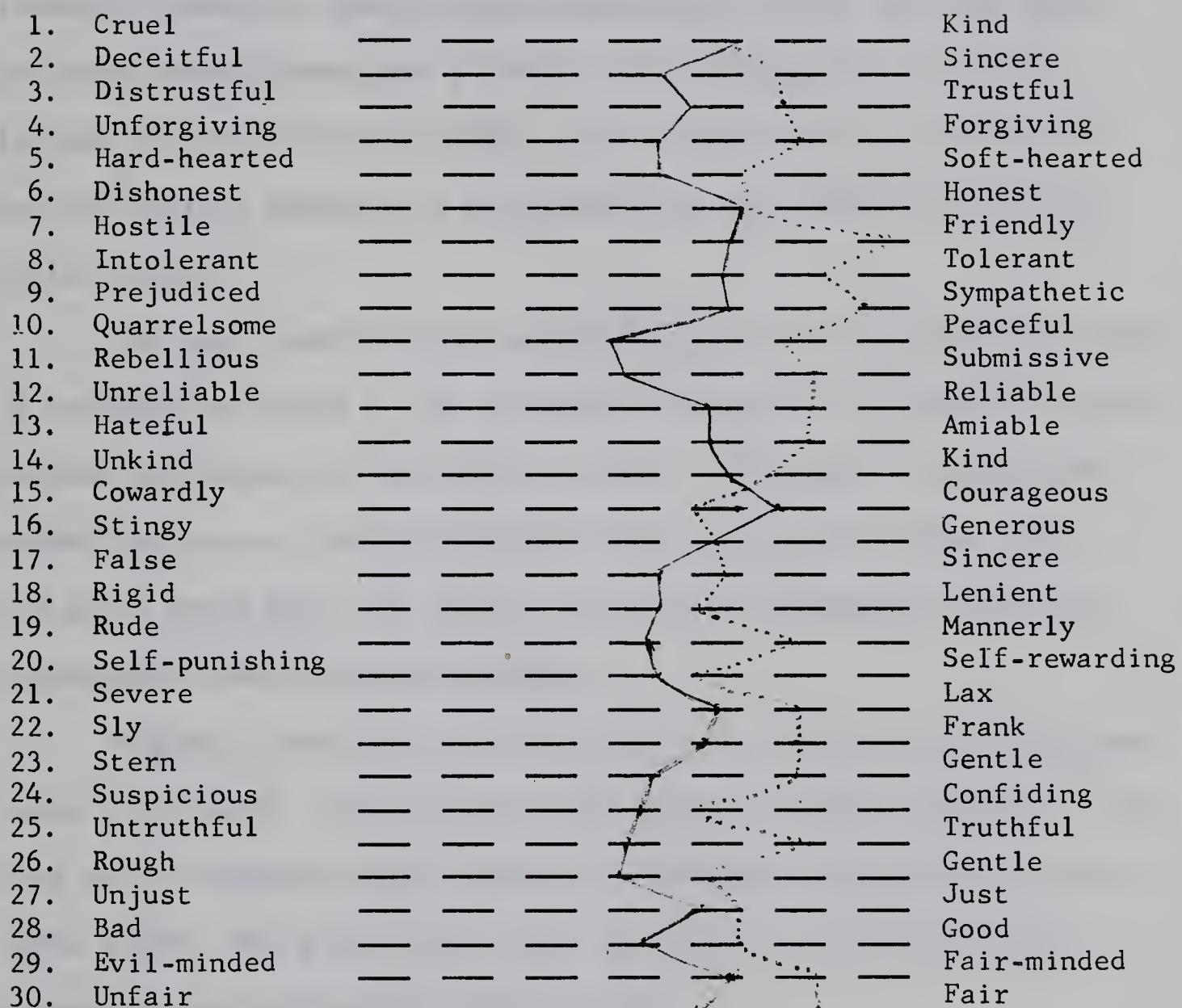
The purpose of this testing instrument was to provide a means of evaluating the students moral traits as seen and judged by their own age group.

Each pair of adjectives was rated on a 7 point scale. Each scale position was assigned a number from 1 to 7 arbitrarily from left to right. Mean scores were calculated for each pair of items on the scale and for each group. The pooled results are recorded on graphs comparing boys and girls of the three ability groups; comparing the three groups of low, average and high intelligence; comparing total boys as against total girls and lastly a graph recording the mean of each item for the total group. Figures numbering 1 to 6 record this data. A difference of two points was considered a significant or noted difference in analyzing the data.

Figure 1 records the mean scores of both boys and girls of the low intelligence group in regard to the Student Rating Scale. The results show that the girls rated themselves lower than the boys only in kindness and courageousness. All ratings were favorable. The two lowest ratings were made by the boys when they evaluated their age

FIGURE 1

73

GROUP SELF-RATINGS OF MORAL TRAITS BY BOYS
AND GIRLS OF LOW INTELLIGENCE

Means of responses from 21 boys, 8 girls.

 Boys self-ratings.

..... Girls self-ratings.

group as being more quarrelsome and rebellious than did the girls.

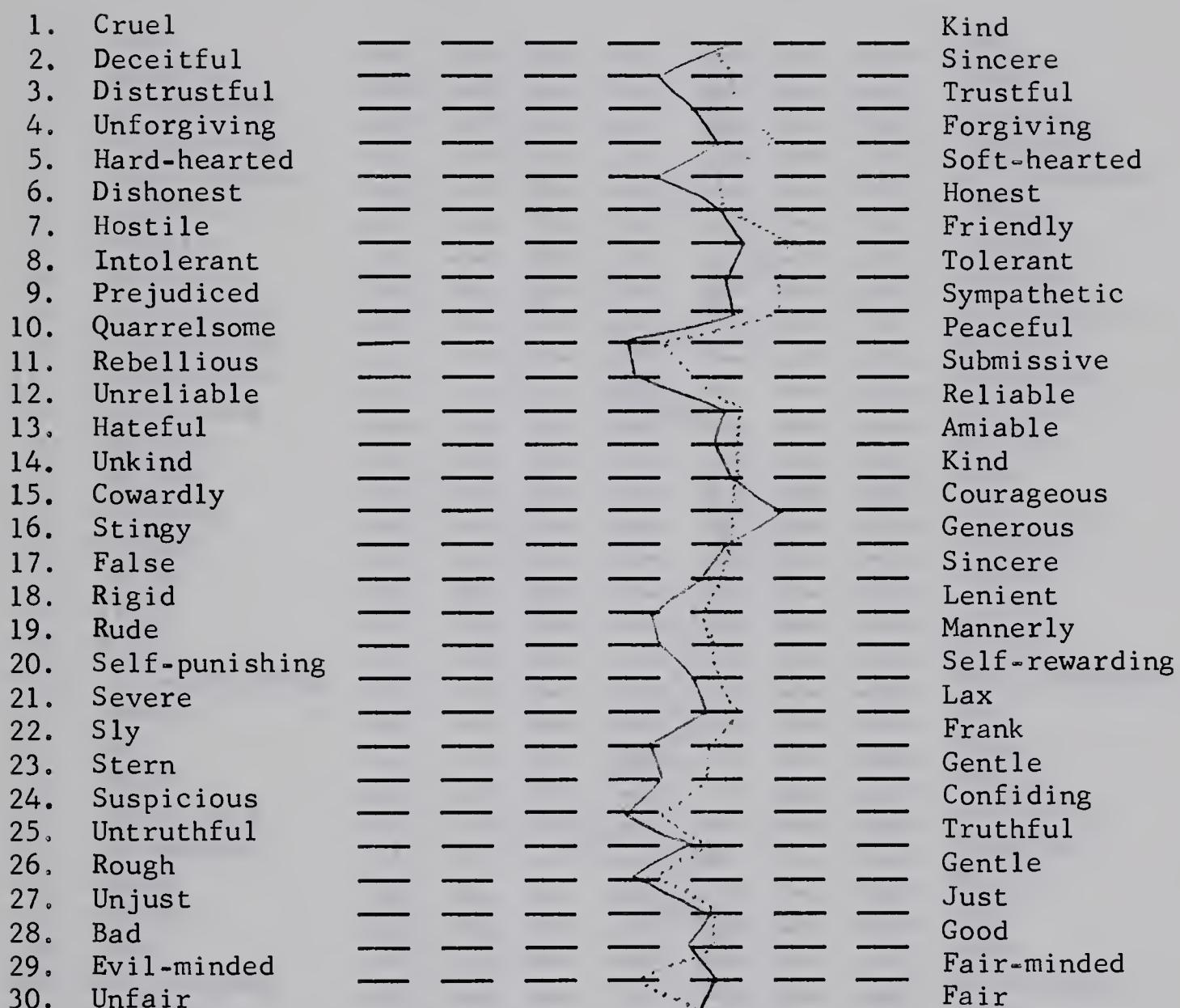
Figure 2 records the mean score of boys and girls of average intelligence in regard to the Student Rating Scale. While the girls of the average intelligence group found themselves a little less trustful, peaceful, gentle, fair-minded and truthful than the boys, the boys scored themselves a little less soft-hearted, tolerant, lenient and frank than the girls. The overall picture is favorable and the choices showed very slight differences between the boys and girls ratings.

The mean score of boys and girls of the high intelligence group is recorded in Figure 3. As in Figure 2 there was a great similarity between the choices of the boys and girls. The overall picture recorded the boys as rating themselves lower on all but three items. The girls found their age group a little less courageous, kind and fair-minded than their counterparts.

Figure 4 records the mean scores for the total boys group and total girls group. Both groups rated their age level favorably. The boys on the average rated themselves lower than the girls on all but three items. The girls found their age level a little less kind, courageous and fair-minded than the boys.

Figure 5 records the mean score according to intelligence. All three groups rated their age group favorably with the highest rating made by the low intelligence group who considered their age group to be quite friendly. The lowest rating was made by the high intelligence

FIGURE 4

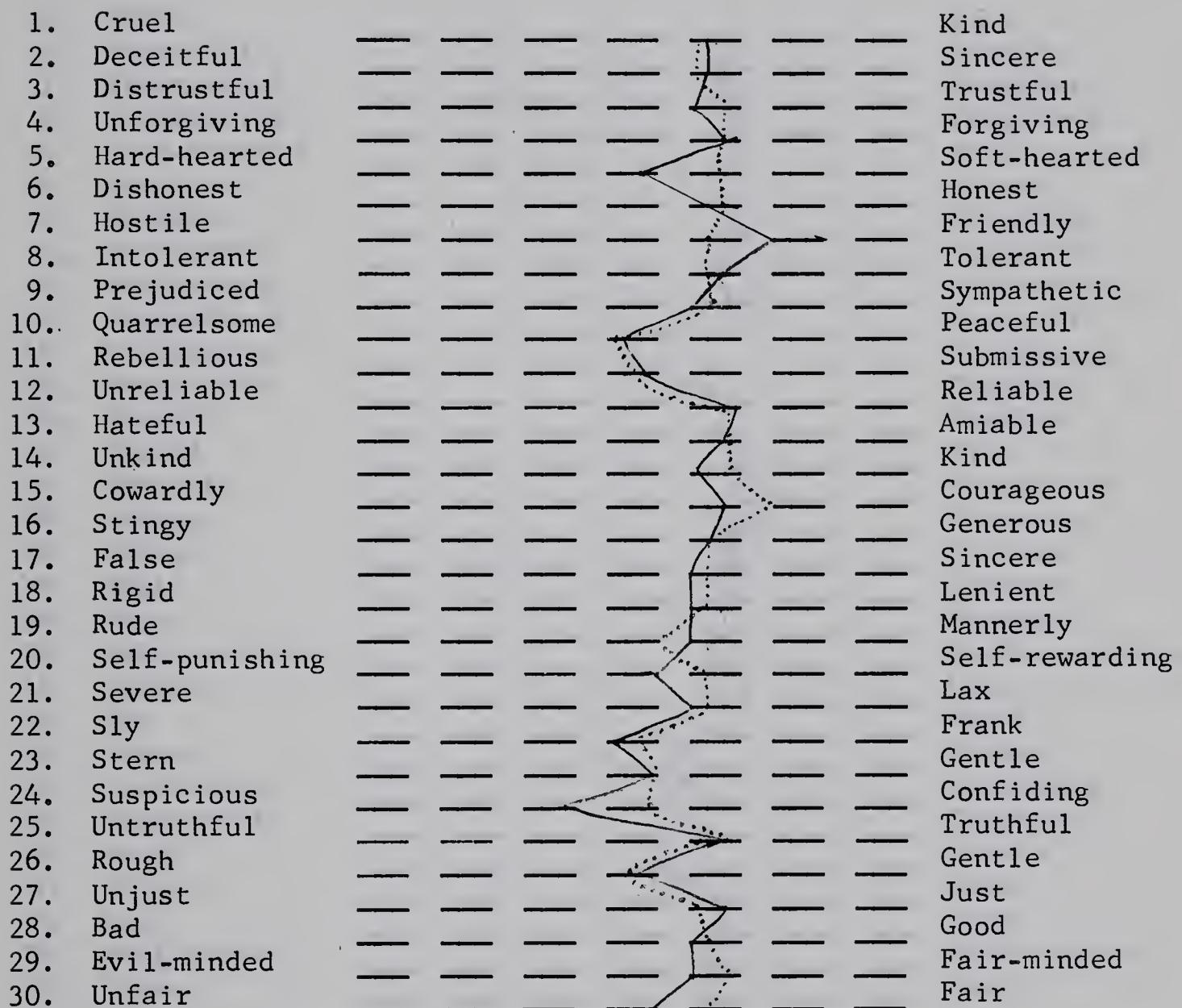
GROUP SELF-RATINGS OF MORAL TRAITS OF TOTAL
BOYS AND TOTAL GIRLS GROUPS

Mean of responses from 89 boys, 80 girls.

 Boys self-ratings.

..... Girls self-ratings.

FIGURE 3

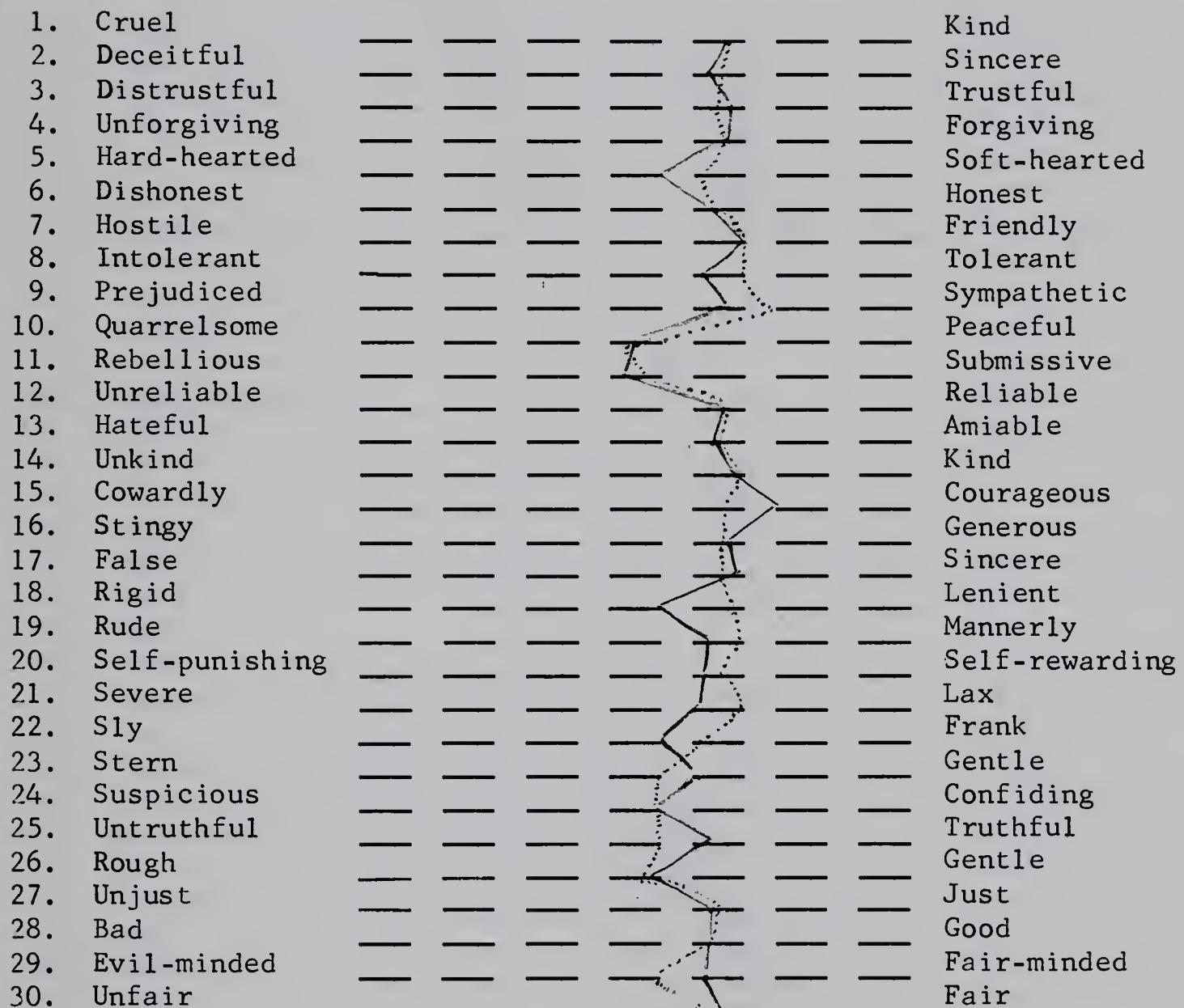
GROUP SELF-RATINGS OF MORAL TRAITS BY BOYS AND
GIRLS OF HIGH INTELLIGENCE

Mean of responses from 22 boys, 27 girls.

 Boys self-ratings.

..... Girls self-ratings.

FIGURE 2

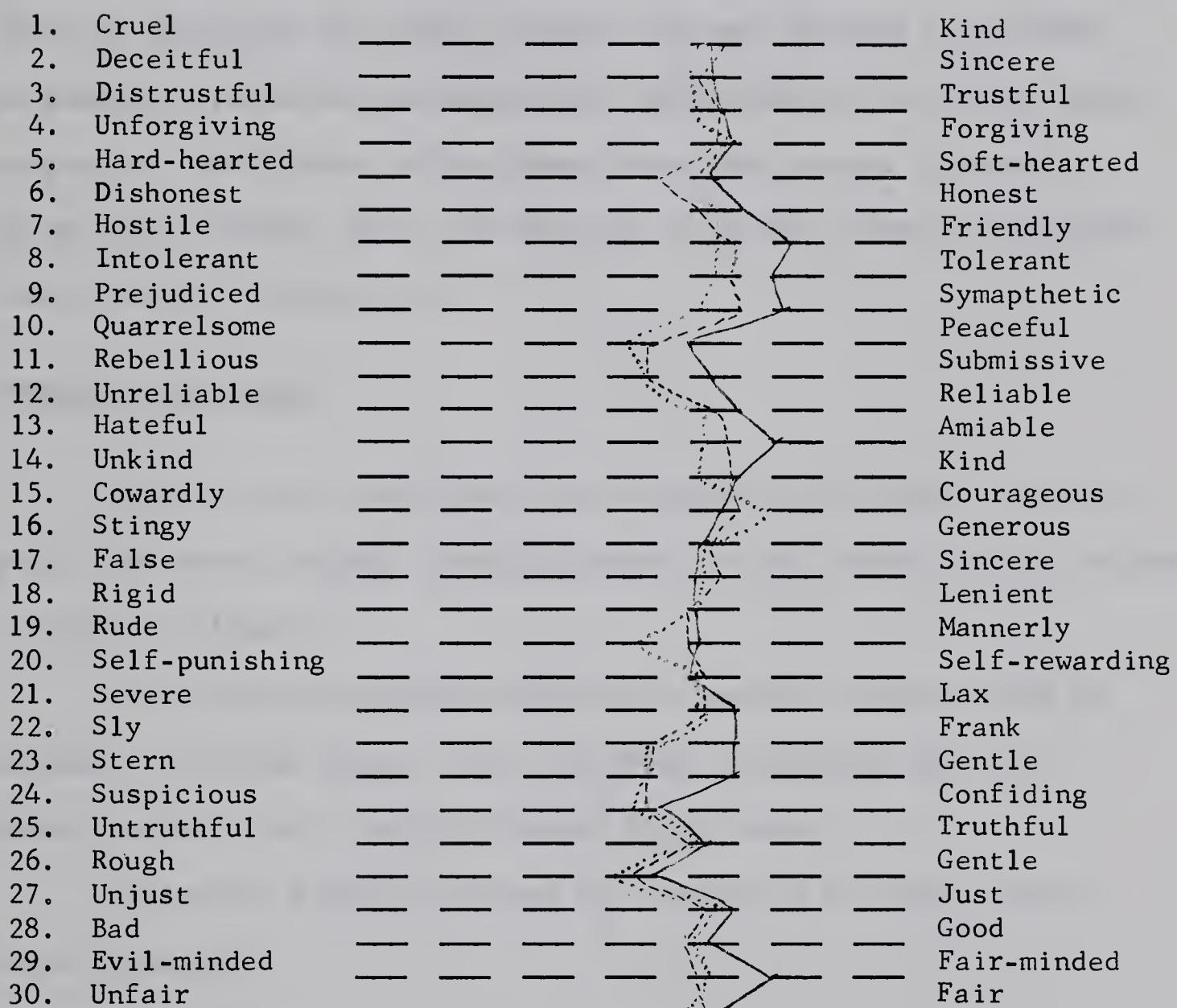
GROUP SELF-RATINGS OF MORAL TRAITS BY BOYS AND
GIRLS OF AVERAGE INTELLIGENCE

Mean of responses from 45 boys, 46 girls.

 Boys self-ratings.

..... Girls self-ratings.

FIGURE 5

GROUP SELF-RATINGS OF MORAL TRAITS OF LOW,
AVERAGE AND HIGH ABILITY GROUPS

Mean of responses from 29 low, 91 average, and 49 high ability children.

— Low ability group self-ratings.

..... High ability group self-ratings.

---- Average ability group self-ratings.

group who rated their age level as being more quarrelsome than the other two groups.

Figure number 6 of the Student Rating Scale records the average ratings of the total population. The lowest ratings showed that students at the grade five level thought they were neither quarrelsome nor peaceful, rebellious nor submissive, suspicious nor confiding, rough nor gentle. The highest rating showed that they thought themselves to be quite friendly while the other 25 items were rated as "slightly" kind, sincere, trustful, etc.

Summary of Analyses

Data for this investigation were gathered from grade five students from three randomly selected schools in the Separate School System of Edmonton, Alberta.

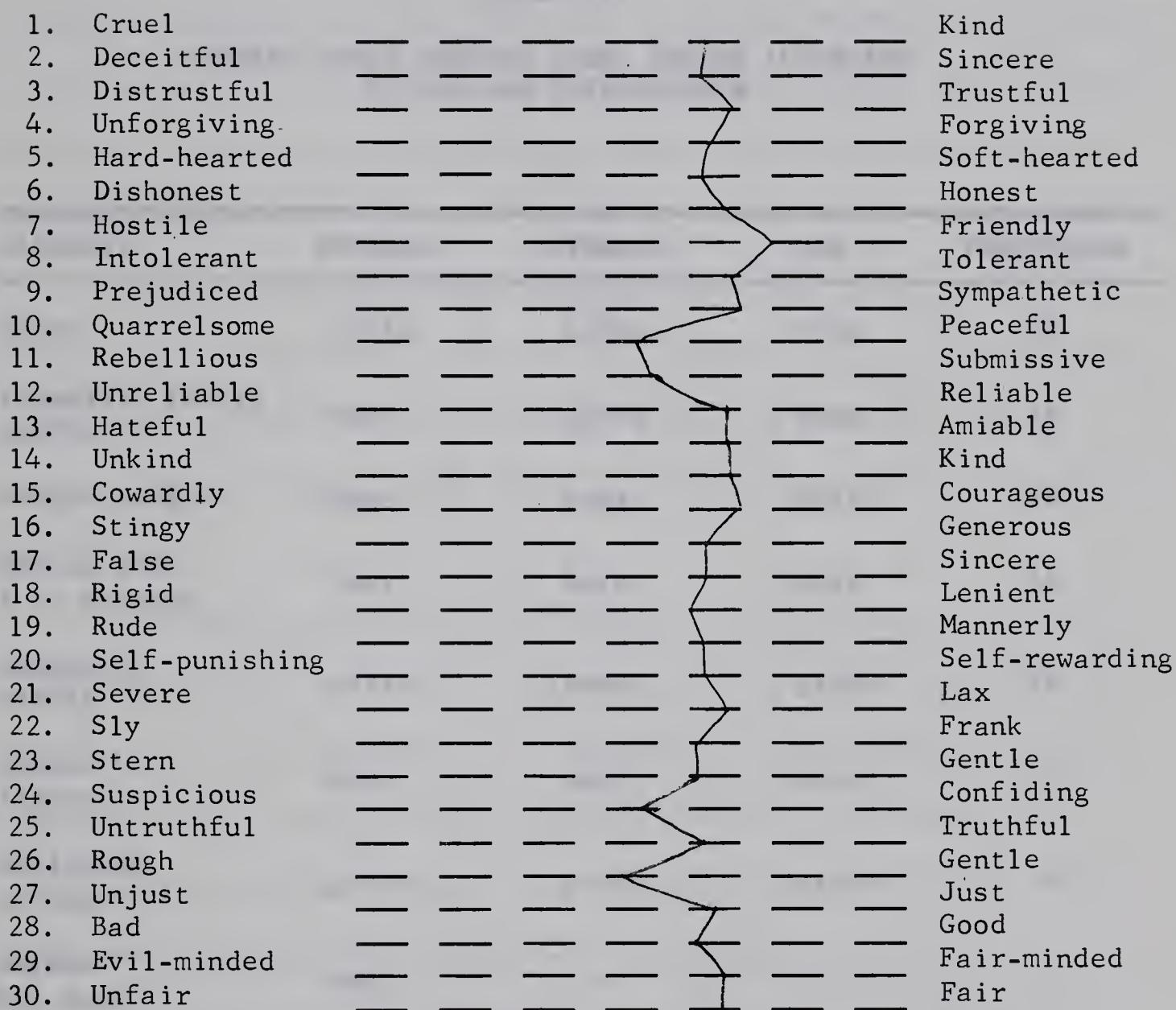
The testing instruments employed to gather this data were as follows: (1) Ideal Person test, (2) Moral Wickedness test, (3) Moral Incidents test, and (4) Student Rating scale.

Tables and figures recorded the results of the above instruments separately.

Ideal Person Test

The Ideal Person test requested that the students name the person they would most wish to be like and to give reasons for their choice. Summary tables were drawn up for the various tests in order to give a clearer picture of the patterns which evolved as a result

FIGURE 6

GROUP SELF-RATINGS OF MORAL TRAITS
OF TOTAL GROUP

Mean of responses from 169 children.

 Total group self ratings.

of the analysis. In these tables the percentage of the total population who chose each category was stated in order to give an idea of the weight involved.

TABLE XII
SUMMARY TABLE SHOWING IDEAL PERSON ACCORDING
TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	AVERAGE	AVERAGE	LOW	PERCENTAGE
Peers	girls	girls	boys	25
Immediate family circle	boys	girls	boys	16
Famous people	boys	boys	boys	16
Movies and T.V. persons	boys	boys	boys	14
Community circle	girls	boys	girls	12
Sports figures	boys	boys	boys	10
Religious persons	girls	girls	girls	6
Anyone but self	boy	-	-	1

As shown in the above Table XII, the following patterns of responses were found. Girls of high intelligence chose their ideal person from the categories of peers, community circle, and religious persons. Boys of high intelligence chose their ideal persons from the categories

of the immediate family circle, movies and T.V. persons, and Sports figures. One boy of high intelligence wanted to be anyone but himself.

Girls of average intelligence chosen people from the categories of peers, immediate family circle and religious persons as their ideal person while boys of average intelligence chose people from the areas of famous people, movies and T.V. persons, sports figures, and the community circle.

Girls of low intelligence chose their ideal persons from the community circle and religious people while boys of low intelligence chose their ideal from the categories of peers, immediate family circle, famous people, movie and T.V. persons or persons in the sport field.

As can be noted from this summary, there is very little difference from one intelligence level to another. Boys regardless of intelligence tend to choose their ideals from the categories of immediate family circle, famous people, movie and T.V. persons and sports figures while the girls on the whole chose their ideal person from among peers, community circle and religious persons.

Approximately 25 percent of these grade five students chose 'peers' as their ideal person with girls of average and high intelligence accounting for the majority of this percentage. The second highest choice was for 'famous people' with the boys of all three intellectual groups responsible for approximately five-sixths of the

total raw score. The third highest category was the 'immediate circle' of family and relatives. Boys of high intelligence and girls of average intelligence led in the raw score totals with the girls overall total just slightly higher than the boys. Movies and T.V. persons ages account for 14 percent of the total choice with the raw scores and averages both for the boys and the girls of all three intellectual levels being approximately the same.

Community circle, Sports persons and Religious figures account for 12 percent, 10 percent and 6 percent of the total population respectively. A higher percentage of girls of high and low intelligence and the boys of average intelligence chose people within the community circle as their ideal person. A higher percentage of boys over girls in all three intellectual groups chose sports figures as their ideal person. A higher percentage of girls in the high and average intelligence groups and boys in the low intelligence groups chose religious figures over their counterparts. One child wanted to be anyone but himself.

It was interesting to note that 12 percent of the girls chose persons of the opposite sex as their ideal as opposed to 5 percent of the boys choosing females. Table VIII showed that the girls on the average gave two reasons for their choice of an ideal person and the boys 1.5 reasons.

A summary of reasons given for choosing an ideal person is tabulated in Table XIII. This table shows which sex and what intelligence group offered the highest percentage of reasons within each

TABLE XIII
SUMMARY TABLE SHOWING REASONS FOR CHOOSING IDEAL PERSON
ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	PERCENTAGE
Physical attributes	Boys	Girls	Boys	26
Talent	Girls	Boys	Boys	21
Personality	Girls	Boys	-	19
Intelligence	Girls	Girls	Girls	16
Kind	Girls	Girls	Girls	13
Service to others	Boys	Girls	Boys	13
Adventure	Boys	Boys	Girls	10
Nice	Girls	Girls	Girls	10
Wealth	Boys	Boys	Boys	8
Bravery	Boys	Boys	Boys	5
Good (to me)	-	Girls	Girls	5
Religious	Girls	Boys	Boys	3
Inventor	Boys	Boys	-	2
Others	Girls	Girls	Girls	2

category. The percentage of the total population is offered for each category in order to give an idea of the weight involved.

As can be seen from Table XIII the following patterns of responses were noted. The girls in the high intelligence group chose their ideal person because they were: (1) talented, (2) intelligent, (3) had a nice personality, (4) were kind, (5) were nice, (6) were religious, or for 'other' reasons as stated under the category 'others'. The boys of this ability group chose their ideal person because the person: (1) had fine or strong physical attributes, (2) served others, (3) were adventurous, (4) had wealth, (5) were inventors, or (5) were brave.

Girls of average intelligence on the average chose their ideal person because they: (1) had fine or strong physical attributes, (2) were intelligent, (3) were kind, (4) served others, (5) were nice, (6) were good, in the sense of being good to them. Boys in this ability group chose their ideal person because they: (1) had talents, (2) had a nice personality, (3) were adventurous, (4) were wealthy, (5) were inventors, (5) were brave, or (6) were religious.

Girls of low intelligence chose their ideal person mainly because they: (1) were intelligent, (2) were kind, (3) were adventurous, (4) were nice, (5) were good to them. Boys of this ability group chose their ideal person mainly because they: (1) had fine or strong physical attributes, (2) had talents, (3) serve others, (4) were wealthy, (5) were brave, (6) were religious.

As can be seen from Table XIII the girls mainly chose their ideal person because they: (1) were intelligent, (2) were kind, (3) were nice, (4) were good. The boys on the average chose their ideal person because they: (1) had fine or strong physical attributes, (2) had talent, (3) served others, (4) were adventurous, (5) were wealthy, (6) were inventors, (7) were brave, (8) were religious.

Moral Wickedness Test

Table XIV offers a summary of the findings in Table IV and will depict the sex and intelligence group offering the highest percentage of responses in each category. The percentage of the total population who gave these responses was recorded in order to give an idea of the weight involved in the categories.

According to Table XIV the following patterns of responses were noted. All but one boy of low intelligence and six girls of high intelligence mentioned murder as a wicked deed.

The following categories were named by the girls of high intelligence groups more often than boys of high intelligence: mental cruelty, cruelty to animals, stealing, vandalism, swearing, kidnapping, war, prejudice, sinning, and 'others'. The boys of this intelligence group had higher percentages of responses in physical cruelty and in taking, pushing or selling drugs.

Girls of the average intelligence groups gave a higher percentage of responses than the boys of average intelligence in the following categories: lying, swearing, suicide and war.

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY TABLE SHOWING MORALLY WICKED ACTIONS
ACCORDING TO SEX AND INTELLIGENCE

CATEGORY	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	PERCENTAGE
Murder	Girls	Boys	Boys	100
Stealing	Girls	Girls	Girls	44
Physical Cruelty	Boys	Girls	Boys	33
Mental Cruelty	Girls	Girls	Girls	18
Vandalism	Girls	Girls	Girls	13
Lying	Girls	Boys	Girls	12
Swearing	Girls	Boys	Girls	11
War	Girls	Boys	Girls	11
Sinning	Girls	Girls	Boys	10
Kidnapping	Girls	Girls	Boys	7
Suicide	-	Boys	Girls	7
Cruelty to Animals	Girls	Girls	Girls	6
Family Problems	-	Girls	Girls	5
Prejudice	Girls	Girls	Girls	4
Drugs	Boys	Girls	-	3
Others	Girls	Boys	Boys	16

The boys of the low intelligence group have a higher percentage of responses in the categories of physical cruelty, cruelty to animals, kidnapping, 'sins' and 'others'. The girls of the low intelligence group chose on the average more often than the boys the categories of mental cruelty, lying, vandalism, swearing, family problems, suicide, war and prejudice.

The girls showed a higher percentage than the boys in choosing the following categories as wicked deeds: mental cruelty, cruelty to animals, stealing, lying, vandalism, swearing, kidnapping, family problems, war, prejudice, and sinning. The boys led only in the categories of physical cruelty and 'other' deeds.

Moral Incidents Test

A summary of the Moral Incidents test showed the following general patterns of responses according to sex and intelligence.

Incidents concerned with honesty were generally handled with straight-forwardness. There was very little difference between boys and girls or between the ability groups when responding to simple issues concerning honesty.

A summary of incidents concerned with responsibility and loyalty demonstrates an almost unanimous choice for being loyal and keeping one's word. Incident 2 was an exception in that the highest percentage of boys and girls in all three ability groups decided that the best way to handle the situation would be to ask mother what to do.

The responses to incidents concerned with punishment showed less unanimity than the responses concerned with honesty and responsibility. In all three incidents both the boys and girls responses were divided mainly between two solutions with a very small number choosing the third alternative.

In general the more complex the issue the less the slower children were able to cope with the situation.

Student Rating Scale

A summary of the findings in regard to the student rating scale showed that all the children rated themselves favorably.

The lowest ratings showed that children at the grade five level on the whole feel they are 'neither' quarrelsome nor peaceful, rebellious nor submissive, suspicious nor confiding, rough nor gentle. The highest rating showed them to be 'quite' friendly while the remaining 25 ratings record different degrees of 'slightly' kind, sincere, etc.

The Statistical Analyses

The Chi square test of significance was applied to the data in order to detect any discrepancy between the observed frequencies and the theoretical frequencies that might be expected. The following null hypotheses were rejected or not rejected on the basis of a .05 level of significance.

Testing the Null Hypotheses I and II

Hypothesis I

There is no significance difference between boys and girls when choosing an ideal person.

Hypothesis II

There is no significant difference between ability groups when choosing an ideal person.

The following table gives the value of chi square, the degrees of freedom and the probability level for Hypotheses I and II.

TABLE XV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE CHOICE OF AN IDEAL PERSON AND 1) SEX, 2) ABILITY

Null Hypothesis	Value of χ^2	df	P
I - Sex	31.888	7	0.0000
II - Ability	24.297	7	0.0422

As reported in Table XV a difference, significant at the .05 level was found between boys and girls when choosing an ideal person. Therefore, Hypothesis I was rejected.

A difference significant at the .05 level was found between ability groups when choosing an ideal person. Therefore, Hypothesis II was rejected.

Testing for Null Hypothesis III and IV

Hypothesis III

There is no significant difference between boys and girls when giving reasons for choosing an ideal person.

Hypothesis IV

There is no significant difference between ability groups when giving reasons for choosing an ideal person.

The following table gives the value of chi square, degrees of freedom and the probability level for Hypotheses III and IV.

TABLE XVI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN REASONS GIVEN FOR CHOOSING AN IDEAL PERSON AND 1) SEX, 2) ABILITY

Null Hypothesis	Value of χ^2	df	P
III - Sex	28.740	26	0.0071
IV - Ability	24.778	26	0.5316

As reported in Table XVI a difference significant at the .05 level was found between boys and girls when giving reasons for the choice of an ideal person. Therefore, Hypothesis III was rejected.

A difference that was not significant at the .05 level was found between ability groups when giving reasons for the choice of an ideal person. Hypothesis IV was therefore not rejected.

Testing the Null Hypotheses V and VI

Hypothesis V

There is no significant difference between boys and girls when naming wicked deeds.

Hypothesis VI

There is no significant difference between ability groups when naming wicked deeds.

The following table gives the value of chi square, degrees of freedom and the probability level for hypotheses V or VI.

TABLE XVII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NAMING OF WICKED DEEDS
AND 1) SEX, 2) ABILITY

Null Hypothesis	Value of χ^2	df	P
V - Sex	35.163	15	0.0023
VI - Ability	29.394	30	0.4970

As reported in Table XVII a difference significant at the .05 level was found between boys and girls when naming wicked deeds. Therefore Hypothesis V was rejected.

A difference which was not significant at the .05 level was found between ability groups when naming wicked deeds. Hypothesis VI was therefore not rejected.

Testing the null hypotheses VII (a-j) and Hypothesis VIII (a-j)

Hypotheses VII (a-j)

There is no significant difference between boys and girls when responding to:

- a) Incident 4 dealing with honesty
- b) Incident 6 dealing with honesty
- c) Incident 7 dealing with honesty
- d) Incident 8 dealing with honesty
- e) Incident 3 dealing with loyalty and responsibility
- f) Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility
- g) Incident 2 dealing with loyalty and responsibility

- h) Incident 1 dealing with punishments
- i) Incident 5 dealing with punishments
- j) Incident 9 dealing with punishments

of the Moral Incidents Test.

Hypothesis VIII (a-j)

There is no significant difference between ability groups when responding to:

- a) Incident 4 dealing with honesty
- b) Incident 6 dealing with honesty
- c) Incident 7 dealing with honesty
- d) Incident 8 dealing with honesty
- e) Incident 3 dealing with loyalty and responsibility
- f) Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility
- g) Incident 2 dealing with loyalty and responsibility
- h) Incident 1 dealing with punishments
- i) Incident 5 dealing with punishments
- j) Incident 9 dealing with punishments

of the Moral Incidents Test.

Table XVIII presents the value of chi square, degrees of freedom and the probability level of Hypothesis VII (a-j) and Hypothesis VIII (a-j).

As reported in Table XVIII a difference significant at the .05 level was found between boys and girls when responding to Incident 8 dealing with honesty; and, between boys and girls when responding to Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility. Therefore, Hypothesis VII (d) and VII (f) were rejected.

A difference which was not significant at the .05 level was found between boys and girls when responding to Incident 4, 6, 7 dealing with honesty; between boys and girls when responding to Incidents 3 and 2 dealing with loyalty and responsibility; and,

TABLE XVIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE RESPONSES TO THE MORAL INCIDENTS 1-10
AND 1) SEX, 2) ABILITY

Null Hypotheses	Value χ^2	df	P
VII - Sex and			
a) Incident 4	3.885	2	0.1434
b) Incident 6	4.252	2	0.1193
c) Incident 7	0.925	2	0.6296
d) Incident 8	7.749	2	0.0208
e) Incident 3	0.842	2	0.6563
f) Incident 10	6.202	2	0.0450
g) Incident 2	1.908	2	0.3852
h) Incident 1	3.094	2	0.2129
i) Incident 5	3.197	2	0.2022
j) Incident 9	2.559	2	0.2782
VIII - Ability and			
a) Incident 4	6.218	4	0.1835
b) Incident 6	5.604	4	0.2307
c) Incident 7	1.349	4	0.8529
d) Incident 8	43.329	4	0.0000
e) Incident 3	1.066	4	0.8996
f) Incident 10	17.891	4	0.0013
g) Incident 2	5.062	4	0.2810
h) Incident 1	12.599	4	0.0134
i) Incident 5	8.217	4	0.0839
j) Incident 9	3.861	4	0.4252

between boys and girls when responding to Incidents 1, 5 and 9 dealing with punishments. Hypothesis VII a, b, c, e, g, h, i and j were not rejected.

A difference significant at the .05 level was found between ability groups when responding to Incident 8 dealing with honesty; between ability groups when responding to Incident 10 when dealing with loyalty and responsibility; and, between ability groups when responding to Incident 1 dealing with punishments. Therefore Hypothesis VIII (d), (f), and (h) were rejected.

A difference which was not significant at the .05 level was found between ability groups when responding to Incidents 4, 6 and 7 dealing with honesty; between ability groups when responding to Incidents 3 and 2 dealing with loyalty and responsibility; and, between ability groups when responding to Incidents 5 and 9 when dealing with punishments. Hypothesis VIII a, b, c, e, g, i and j were not rejected.

Summary of Statistical Analyses

The chi square test of significance was applied to the data gathered for this investigation and the following differences were found to be significant at the .05 level:

- (a) between boys and girls when choosing an ideal person
- (b) between ability groups when choosing an ideal person
- (c) between boys and girls when giving reasons for choosing an ideal person
- (d) between boys and girls when naming wicked deeds

- (e) between boys and girls when responding to Incident 8 dealing with honesty and Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility
- (f) between ability groups when responding to Incident 8 dealing with honesty, Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility and Incident 1 dealing with punishments.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The present study was undertaken in order to explore the moral concepts and moral judgments of grade five children in order to identify patterns of responses according to sex and ability.

To accomplish this task three Separate Schools of middle socio-economic status were randomly selected from the five largest middle socio-economic schools in the City of Edmonton, Canada. One hundred and sixty nine grade five students took part in the study.

The testing instruments included the 'Ideal Person' test, the 'Moral Wickedness' test, the 'Moral Incidents' test and a Student Rating Scale.

The analysis of data involved the computation of percentages and mean scores. The findings were presented in the form of tables and figures. The Chi Square test of significance was applied to the data and the results recorded in Tables XV, XVI, XVII and XVIII. Conclusions based on the findings of this investigation, as well as implications for teachers, and recommendations for related research are discussed in the present chapter.

I. CONCLUSIONS

In order to investigate moral judgments and moral concepts of grade five children four questions were addressed to the study.

This section of the present chapter will attempt to answer the questions presented to the investigation. All conclusions were made in view of the division of the total population as recorded in Table I.

1. What types of persons are considered ideal by grade five students and why?

General categories composed of persons immediately known to the children were; (1) immediate circle of the family and relatives, (2) community circle, (3) peers, and two of the religious category. Persons chosen who were remotely known to the children included; (1) famous people, (2) movie and T.V. personages, (3) sports figures and the remaining persons named in the religious category.

These two general categories having been defined it was found that grade five girls on the average chose a higher percentage of immediately known characters as their ideal person and this remained true for all three categories of intelligence. The grade five boys on the other hand chose a higher percentage of remotely known characters as their ideal person and as with the girls this was true for all levels of intelligence.

These findings agree only in part with Bray's (1962) findings since for his sample of 2,415 ten to eleven year olds, 83 percent of the boys and 79 percent of the girls chose 'remote' ideal persons. In the present study we have 63 percent of the boys but only 28 percent of the girls choosing 'remote' persons as their ideals.

The Pringle, Edwards (1964) study recorded that a majority of children seem to choose as their ideal person characters unknown to them. This finding was the same for both the boys and the girls. The present study would then only agree in part with the Pringle-Edwards study since the majority of girls chose immediately known persons while a majority of boys chose remotely known persons.

The choice of members of the peer group, as ideal persons, received the highest proportion of the total percentage of the total group. Would this fact be because children are spending more and more time with children their own age and less and less time in the family activities? and discussions? In present day society much of childrens' time is planned for them.

With regard to sex differences, boys and girls on the whole chose persons of their own sex as ideal persons. Twelve percent of the total number of girls chose male ideal persons as against five percent of the total number of boys choosing female ideal persons.

Boys chose a greater percentage of persons who are famous because of politics, adventure or war, or who are associated with movies, television or sports. The girls on the whole chose a greater proportion of persons within the immediate family, community circle, peers and religious figures.

In summarizing the reasons given for choosing their ideal person it was found that the girls generally chose the following reasons; (1) being intelligent, (2) being kind, (3) being nice,

(4) being good to me. The boys more often gave the following reasons for choosing their ideal person; (1) having attractive physical attributes, (2) being talented, (3) being of service to others, (4) being adventurous, (5) having wealth, (6) being an inventor, (7) being brave, (8) being religious.

The reasons offered did not expose any great differences among the intellectual groups. The average number of reasons offered for choosing their ideal person by the children of high intelligence was 1.7, for those of average intelligence was 1.8, and for those of low intelligence was 1.3. The average number of responses for boys was 1.5 and for girls was 2.

This latter observation barely agrees with the Pringle-Edwards (1964) study which found that on the average the more intelligent children gave more reasons for their choice.

It is interesting to note that the reasons offered, were quite similar to the Pringle-Edwards study with British children in regard to the categories named. However the proportions or weight given to the different categories differed. In the Pringle-Edwards (1964) study, good in the sense of being efficient and good in the sense of being kind accounted for approximately half of the reasons given for choosing an ideal person. The present study showed that over half of the total population offered such reasons as physical attributes, talent, personality and intelligence as their reasons for choosing an ideal person.

Several selections of the childrens' statements in regard to the 'Ideal Person' test and the 'Moral Wickedness' test were quoted in order to give an idea of the qualitative differences noted in the responses. No effort was made to measure these differences within the present study.

2. What deeds do children of grade five consider to be most wicked?

The most wicked deed mentioned by all but one boy and six girls was murder. The next highest percentage of the total group named stealing and then physical cruelty as the most wicked deeds.

These findings agree with the Pringle-Edwards (1964) study. Other deeds mentioned in the present study which were not mentioned by the British children were ones connected with; family problems, suicide, drugs, war, prejudice. It was noted that each of these categories named are prominent contemporary problems, the weight and seriousness of which have filtered down to the minds of grade five children. Truly the world is a "village planet" and the communications media have had their effect upon the children who took part in this study.

3. How do children respond to hypothetical situations demanding decisions or judgments within the experience of grade five children?

The data collected to answer this question demonstrated that in straight-forward issues almost all the children decided to handle the situations with honesty and truthfulness. However whenever there

was more than one extenuating factor there was less unanimity in the responses.

Loyalty to one's school and team seemed to be generally accepted almost unanimously by children of this age.

The data concerned with the problems of punishment show less unanimity than the responses given to the incidents concerned with honesty, loyalty and responsibility.

In summary the more intelligent children took into consideration the motive of the misdemeanor more than the other groups and the less able of the groups tended to consider the amount of damage done or simply settled for punishing both parties the same without any consideration for the motives involved in the incidents.

Intellectual ability does seem to influence the moral understanding of the children. However it was interesting to note that while the summary findings of this test agree with the findings of the Pringle-Edwards (1964) study with British children there seemed to be one exception. In the present study children of the three intellectual groups seemed to depend equally upon adult advice. This was not the case in the British study which found that the more capable students were less dependent upon adult advice.

4. How do children judge the moral traits of their own age groups?

A summary of the findings in regard to the Student Rating Scale pointed out that all the children rated themselves favorably.

Very little difference was noted between the sexes or among the intellectual groups. The lowest ratings showed that grade five children considered themselves equally quarrelsome and peaceful, rebellious and submissive, suspicious and confiding, rough and gentle. The highest ratings showed that the majority of the students thought they were quite friendly while the remaining twenty-five ratings record a variety of degrees of slightly kind, sincere, etc. The only two noted differences were: (1) boys of low intelligence felt that children of their age level were neither quarrelsome nor peaceful while the girls of low intelligence felt that children of their age were quite peaceful; (2) boys of low intelligence felt that children of their age level were neither rebellious nor submissive while the girls of low intelligence felt that children their age were quite submissive.

As a result of the application of the Chi square test of significance to the above data the following differences were found significant at the .05 level:

- (a) between boys and girls when choosing an ideal person;
- (b) between ability groups when choosing an ideal person;
- (c) between boys and girls when giving reasons for choosing an ideal person;
- (d) between boys and girls when naming wicked deeds;
- (e) between boys and girls when responding to Incident 8 dealing with honesty and Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility;
- (f) between ability groups when responding to Incident 8 dealing with honesty, Incident 10 dealing with loyalty and responsibility, and Incident 1 dealing with punishments.

II. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study suggest certain implications which might be of value for educators.

1. Many of the children especially the slower ones tended to show that they did not take into consideration the extenuating circumstances involved in the 'Moral Incidents' test. It might be well to remember that an atmosphere, in the home or school, for sharing ideas and talking over problems may well help accelerate development in this area. When a teacher works as a "coordinator of values" rather than a "dictator of standards" children can actually experience the interdependence of their living together through developing their individual capabilities and making their unique contributions within a group. This may well be accomplished by profitable discussions regarding different experiences within the age range of the children and attempting to help them clarify the social implications of the same.

2. Because of the ambiguity in regard to the responses offered to the incidents regarding punishment it might be well to rethink the whole question of regulations in the schools and even more so in the classroom. Are we urging cooperation and helpfulness or are we setting individual goals against group goals by abetting competition by stars, marks, ranks?

3. Card, (1968) tells us that since groups emphasize obedience to rules, respect for positions of authority; and, fulfillment of obligations and responsibilities, they provide the moral training ground of

the nation.

It would seem then that a classroom situation would be an ideal framework within which to continue the moral training begun in the home.

Educators can contribute to solving the difficult problems of living on our "village planet" in the Nuclear Age if they can, with Piaget, not merely seek to examine children's behavior but try to understand the degree to which children at any given age can reason morally.

In the opinion of the investigator this study has been significant in that it has shown that simple tests can produce valuable information about how children reason morally.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In the conclusion of the Edwards and Pringle (1964) study we are reminded that in order to do more we need to know more. Therefore to this end the following suggestions are made in order that according to Pringle and Edwards (1964, p. 215) "wasted ability, maladjustment and delinquency" be not the price paid for lack of research in the area of moral development.

1. A correlation study of the ideal persons chosen by students and the time spent by students in various activities in order to find out more definitely the areas of environmental influence in children's lives.

2. In the 'Moral Incidents' test several abstract moral concepts such as honesty, loyalty, and responsibility are dealt with. It might prove profitable to classify the levels of the children's definitions of these concepts since the children are expected to manipulate or work within the framework of an understanding of such definitions in everyday situations. Children use the terms justice, loyalty, responsibility, but what do they mean to them?

3. A correlation study between groups being taught by different methods of religious instruction might be profitable. Any one of the tests administered in the present study could be used.

4. Does socio-economic status influence the development of moral judgments? A study might be carried out to determine the influence of socio-economic status on the development of moral judgment of children.

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APPENDIX

TABLE XIX
MEAN SCORES OF STUDENT RATING SCALE
PART I

ITEM	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
	LOW			AVERAGE			HIGH			TOTAL		
	21	8	29	45	46	91	22	27	49	89	80	169
1.	4.8	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.8	4.7	4.5	4.3	4.4	4.6	4.4	4.5
2.	3.5	5.1	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.3	4.0	4.6	4.3
3.	4.2	5.2	4.6	4.7	4.5	4.6	4.3	4.9	4.1	4.1	4.8	4.6
4.	4.0	5.8	4.9	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.5	5.1	4.4
5.	3.9	4.8	4.3	3.8	4.3	4.0	3.9	4.5	4.2	3.8	4.5	4.3
6.	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.6	4.6
7.	4.9	6.5	5.7	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.1	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.3	5.1
8.	4.5	6.0	5.2	4.4	5.0	4.7	4.7	4.3	4.5	4.5	5.1	4.8
9.	4.7	6.2	5.4	4.9	5.1	5.0	4.1	4.5	4.3	4.5	5.2	4.9
10.	3.1	5.1	4.1	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.3	4.0	3.6
11.	3.3	5.6	4.4	3.5	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.4	4.2	3.8
12.	4.4	5.6	5.0	4.9	4.8	4.8	5.0	4.7	4.8	4.7	5.0	4.8
13.	4.6	5.6	5.1	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.9	4.8
14.	4.9	5.2	5.0	4.9	4.8	4.8	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.6	4.8	4.7
15.	5.2	4.2	4.6	5.2	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.4	5.2	5.1	4.8	4.9

TABLE XIX
MEAN SCORES OF STUDENT RATING SCALE
PART II

ITEM	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
	LOW			AVERAGE			HIGH			TOTAL		
	21	8	29	45	46	91	22	27	49	89	80	169
16.	4.1	4.5	4.3	4.7	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.8	4.4
17.	3.8	4.7	4.2	4.8	4.5	4.7	4.1	4.5	4.3	4.2	4.5	4.4
18.	4.0	4.2	4.1	3.8	4.4	4.1	4.1	4.5	4.3	3.9	4.3	4.1
19.	3.7	5.2	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.1	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.2
20.	4.0	4.3	4.1	4.4	4.8	4.6	4.0	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.2
21.	4.6	5.5	5.0	4.2	4.9	4.5	4.3	4.8	4.5	4.3	5.0	4.6
22.	4.2	5.5	4.8	3.9	4.1	4.0	3.3	3.9	3.6	3.8	4.5	4.1
23.	4.0	5.5	4.7	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.1
24.	3.7	4.3	4.0	3.8	4.0	3.9	2.9	3.5	3.2	3.4	3.9	3.7
25.	3.6	5.5	4.5	4.5	4.0	4.2	4.6	4.8	4.7	4.1	4.7	4.4
26.	3.4	4.2	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.5
27.	4.4	4.8	4.6	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.2	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
28.	3.9	5.0	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.5	4.3
29.	4.8	5.8	5.3	4.6	4.0	4.3	4.2	4.6	4.4	4.5	3.8	4.6
30.	4.1	5.6	4.8	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.0	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.9	4.7

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